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IN THE

SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES

October Term, 1975

No. 75- 5491

JAMES TYRONE WOODSON and LUBY WANTON,

Petitioners,

-v.-

STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA,

Respondent.

PETITION FOR WRIT OF CERTIORARI TO THE SUPREME COURT OF NORTH CAROLINA

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SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES

October Term, 1975

No. 75-

JAMES TYRONE WOODSON and LUBY WAXTON,

Petitioners,

-V . -

STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA,

Respondent.

PETITION FOR WRIT OF CERTIORARI TO THE SUPREME COURT OF NORTH CAROLINA

Petitioners pray that a writ of certiorari issue to review the judgment of the Supreme Court of the State of North Carolina entered on June 26, 1975.

CITATION TO OPINION BELOW

The opinion of the Supreme Court of North Carolina is reported at __N.C.__, 215 S.E.2d 607 (1975), and is set out in Appendix A hereto, pp. la-15a, inir.

JURISDICTION.

The judgment of the Supreme Court of North Carolina was entered on June 26, 1975, and is sat out in Appendix A hereto. Jurisdiction of this Court is invoked under 28 U.S.C. §1257(3), petitioners having asserted below and asserting here deprivation of rights secured by the Constitution of the United States.

QUESTION PRLS 1 3 I

Whether the imposition and the out of the sentence of death for the crime of must be law of North Carolina

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violates the Eighth or Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States?

CONSTITUTIONAL AND STATUTORY PROVISIONS INVOLVED

- 1. This case involves the Eighth and Fourteenth Amendments to the Constitution of the United States.
- 2. This case also involves the following provisions of the General Statutes of North Carolina:
 - N. C. Sess. Laws 1973 (2nd sess., 1974), c. 1201, \$1, amending N.C. Gen. Stat. \$14-17 (1974 cum. supp.):

"Murder in the first and second degree defined; punishment. -- A murder which shall be perpetrated by means of poison, lying in wait, imprisonment, starving, torture, or by any other kind of willful, deliberate and premeditated killing, or which shall be committed in the perpetration or attempt to perpetrate any arson, rape, robbery, kidnapping, burglary or other felony, shall be deemed to be murder in the first degree and shall be punished with death. All other kinds of murder shall be deemed murder in the second degree, and shall be punished by imprisonment for a term of not less than two years nor more than life imprisonment in the State's prison."

§14-32 (1974 cum. supp.):

"Felonious assault with deadly weapon with intent to kill or inflicting serious injury; punishments.-
(a) Any person who assaults another person with a deadly weapon with intent to kill and inflicts serious injury is guilty of a felony punishable by a fine, imprisonment for not more than 20 years, or both such fine and imprisonment.

(b) Any person who assaults another person with a deadly weapon and inflicts serious injury is guilty of a felony punishable by a fine, imprisonment for not more than 10 years, or both such fine and imprisonment.

(c) Any person who assaults another person with a deadly weapon with intent to kill is guilty of a felony punishable by a fine, imprisonment for not more than 10 years, or both such fine and imprisonment."

"Robbery with firearms or other langerous weapons.—
Any person or persons who, having in possession or with the use or threatened use of any firearms or other dangerous weapon, implement or means, whereby the life of a person is endangered or threatened, unlawfully takes of attempts to take personal property from another or from any place of business, residence or banking institution or any other place where there is a person or persons in attendance, at any time, either day or night, or who aids or abets any such person or persons in the commission of such crime, shall be guilty of a felony and upon conviction thereof shall be punished by imprisonment for not less than five mor more than thirty years."

§15-176.3 (repl. vol. 1975):

"Informing and questioning potential jurors on consequences of quilty verdict. --When a jury is being selected for a case in which the defendant is indicted for a crime for which the penalty is a sentence of death, the court, the defense, or the State may inform any person called to serve as a potential juror that the death penalty will be imposed upon the return of a verdict of guilty of that crime and may inquire of any person called to serve as a potential juror whether that person understands the consequences of a verdict of guilty of that crime."

§15-176.4 (repl. vol. 1975):

"Instruction to jury on coase wences of guilty verdict. -- When a defend in it indicted for a crime for which the penalty is a sentence of death, the court, upon request by either party, shall instruct the jury that the death penulty will be imposed upon the return of a verdict of guilty of that crime."

§15-176.5 (repl. vol. 1975):

"Argument to jury on consequences of guilty verdict. -- When a case will be so mitted to a jury on a charge for which the peralty is a sentence of death, either party in the argument to the jury may indicate the consequences of a verdict of guilty of that charge."

- 3 -

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§15-187 (repl. vol. 1975):

"Death by administration of lethal gas. -- Death by electrocution under sentence of law is hereby abolished and death by the administration of lethal gas substituted therefor."

§15-188 (repl. vel. 1975):

"Manner and place of execution . -- The mode of executing a death sentence must in every case be by causing the convict or felon to inhale lethal gas of sufficient quantity to cause death, and the administration of such lethal gas must be continued until such convict or felon is dead; and when any person, convict or felon shall be sentenced by any court of the State having competent jurisdiction to be so executed, such punishment shall only be inflicted within a permanent death chamber which the superintendent of the State penitentiary is hereby authorized and directed to provide within the walls of the North Carolina penitentiary at Raleigh, North Carolina, The superintendent of the State penitentiary shall also cause to be provided, in conformity with this article and approved by the Governor and Council of State, the necessary appliances for the infliction of the punishment of death in accordance with the requirements of this article."

STATEMENT OF THE CASE

This is a petition for a writ of certiorari to review the judgment of the Supreme Court of North Carolina, entered on June 26, 1975, affirming petitioners' convictions and death sentences for first degree murder. Petitioner James Tyrone Woodson and petitioner Luby Waxton, indigent black men, were convicted and sentenced to death on December 9, 1974, after a joint trial in the Harnett County Superior Court, for the murder of Mrs. Shirley Whittington Butler, a white woman.

^{1/} At this trial, petitioners were convicted of the armed robbery of Mrs. Butler, but these judgments were arrested, since the armed robbery was the predicate felony of the felony murder counts.

R. 155-156. Petitioner Waxton was also convicted of the crime of assault with a deadly weapon with intent to kill for an assault upon Mr. R. N. Stancil, during the robbery, and he was sentenced to a term of twenty years imprisonment for this crime. R. 154.

The State's case against petitioners consisted primarily of the testimony of two co-defendants, Leonard Maurice Tucker and Johnnie Lee Carroll. Although the State introduced the testimony of twelve other witnesses and various exhibits, no fingerprint, ballistics, or other physical evidence directly linked petitioners to the crime, and the State's other eye witness, R.N.Stancil, could not place them on the scene. Tucker and Carroll were indicted for first degree

murder and armed robbery with petitioners, but pleaded guilty to lesser offenses, R. 31, on December 2, 1974 (prior to petitioners' trial), and were sentenced to terms of imprisonment.

Tucker's and Carroll's accounts were essentially similar.

Tucker testified that he and petitioner Woodson were together
between 11:00 a.m. and 5:00 p.m. on June 3, drinking wine. R. 39.

Woodson declared that "he did not want any part of the robbery,"
R. 44, that they had been discussing with Carroll and petitioner

Waxton for the past few days. Waxton came to Tucker's trailer
about 9:30 p.m. and asked where Woodson was. Tucker said Woodson
was "uptown," R. 39, and Waxton told Tucker to come with him. As
the two walked toward Waxton's trailer, they saw Woodson approaching. Waxton hit him in the face and told him that he was going to
go along with them. According to Tucker, Waxton told Woodson that
"if he didn't come -- if he didn't kill him I [Tucker] would."

Tbid. Woodson's eye was bleeding and swollen and he kept his hand
over it as he accompanied the two men.

^{2/} Three of these witnesses were policemen who went to the Butler store after the robbery, R. 36-38; one was a pathologist who testified that Mrs. Butler had been killed by a gunshot wound in the head and that the bullet was too fragmented for ballistics testing, R. 44-45; one was a fingerprint expert who testified that Tucker's fingerprints were on a package of Kool cigarettes found in the Butler store after the robbery, R. 51; one, R.N. Stancil, see note 3, infra, entered the Butler store during the robbery; two testified as to the chain of custody of evidence, R. 52-53, 53; two testified concerning the loan of a car to Carroll by his brother-in-law, R. 53; one was a police officer who testified concerning his investigation of the crime, R. 53-56; and one was a firearms expert who testified about the inconclusive ballistics tests he had performed. R. 56.

^{3/} Stancil testified that he lived across the street from the E-Z Shop, which was operated by Mrs. Butler, R. 52. He entered the shop about 10:15 p.m., June 3, 1974, to buy a Coke and noticed that Mrs. Butler "was not in her place." Ibid. "I met someone coming out who seemed to be in a hurry and went on by me. I saw something on the floor and I was going to pick it up when I heard an explosion. The person I had just met said something like 'look out'... After the explosion, I felt pain in my back... and saw blood coming off my arm ... I can't identify the person I saw coming out of the E-Z Shop and I did not see Mrs. Butler." Ibid.

^{4/} Tucker was sentenced to ten years imprisonment on his plea of guilty to a charge of Accessory After the Fact to Murder, State v. Leonard Maurice Tucker, Harnett County Super. Ct. No. 74-CR-5050 (December 9, 1974), and to not less than twenty nor more than thirty years imprisonment on his plea of guilty to a charge of Armed Robbery, State v. Leonard Maurice Tucker, Harnett County Super. Ct. No. 74-CR-5051 (December 9, 1974), the sentences to run concurrently. Carroll was sentenced to ten years imprisonment on his plea of guilty to a charge of Accessory After the Fact to Armed Robbery, State v. Johnnie Lee Carroll, Harnett County Super. Ct. No. 74-CR-4994 (December 9, 1974), and to ten years imprisonment on his plea of guilty to a charge of Accessory After the Fact to Murder, State v. Johnnie Lee Carroll, Harnett County Super. Ct. No. 74-CR-4995 (December 9, 1974), the sentences to run consecutive?

^{5/} Tucker testified that "[a]bout a week before the 3rd of June Luby [Waxton] told Tyrone [Woodson] and me he wanted to rob something. That is the only time I heard Luby make statements concerning robbing the place." R. 41.

The three proceeded to Waxton's trailer where they met

Carroll, who had borrowed his brother-in-law's car for the

evening. Woodson told Carroll that Waxton hit him because he

was drunk, and Carroll got him a towel to put over his eye.

6/

R. 39. Inside the trailer, Waxton took a nickle-plated derringer

7/

from a cabinet and put it in his pocket, and Tucker took a .22

caliber automatic rifle from the couch and handed it to Woodson,

at Waxton's request. R. 39. "Luby was giving all the orders."

R. 43. According to Carroll, "[w]hen Woodson took the gun from

Tucker, he said he was going to show him that he wasn't drunk."

R. 47.

The four men got into Carroll's brother-in-law's car;

Carroll drove, and Woodson sat beside him on the front seat, and

Waxton and Tucker sat in the back seat. Waxton declared that

they were going to rob the E-Z Shop, but when they arrived, they

found customers there and drove on past the store. R. 39. They

stopped the car briefly and, at Waxton's direction, Woodson test
fired the rifle by shooting it into the ground twice. R. 43, 45.

They then returned and parked near the store. "Up until the last minute Waxton had instructed Woodson to go in but [he] changed his mind," R. 44, and so Tucker accompanied Waxton into the store, while Carroll and Woodson remained in the car, with the rifle on the floor of the front seat. "Waxton told Woodson not to let anybody in the store," and Woodson said nothing in response. R. 43. Inside the store, Tucker asked Mrs. Butler for a package of Kool cigarettes, and she gave them to him and he paid her. R. 40. He moved down the counter and Waxton also asked for a package of Kools: "the woman handed them to him and Luby then reached into his back pocket, pulled out the Derringer, stuck it around or about the left side of her neck and fired one shot." Ibid. Waxton then leapt over the counter and lifted the money tray from the cash register. As Tucker ran out the door, he passed R.N. Stancil, who was entering the store to buy a Coke, R. 52. Tucker 'told him to look out and [I] kept walking toward

^{6/} Carroll testified that "I could tell that Woodson had been drinking." R. 50.

^{7/} Although Carroll had previously seen Waxton with a "silver Derringer", he did not see any pistol in Waxton's possession on the night of the crime. R. 46.

^{8/} According to Tucker, "the rifle was on the floor of the front seat and not in Woodson's hands." R. 43. Carroll, however, testified that Woodson sat with the rifle "in his hand." R. 45.

^{9/} According to Carroll, however, Tucker emerged from the store carrying the money tray. R. 45.

^{10/} Carroll testified that "Woodson saw Stancil first. He did not stop him. Woodson got out of the car with the rifle and I pulled him back into the car and told him to put the rifle down." R. 48.

the car. Then I heard a second shot from inside the store. I got in the car and about a couple minutes after the second shot Luby came out of the store walking fast with some paper money in his hand." R. 40. The men drove to Waxton's mother's house (where Carroll, Waxton's half-brother, lived), and on the way. Waxton said that "he shot the man in the back" in the store. Ibid.

At the house, Tucker and Waxton counted the money in the bathroom: "[t]here was about \$280 and Luby kept it." <u>Ibid</u>.

Carroll put the rifle and the money tray in the pantry, R. 45, and, a few hours later, buried the money tray under the house at Waxton's direction, R. 46. On June 4, Waxton and Woodson flew to Newark, where they were subsequently apprehended by North Carolina police officers.

On cross examination, Tucker admitted that he had pleaded guilty to lesser charges "in an attempt to save myself." R. 42.

"I was told that I would have to testify against Luby Waxton and I agreed to do that in return for the State Attorney to accept a lesser plea." Ibid. Tucker stated that he "was afraid of Waxton," R. 43, but added that "Waxton didn't threaten any of us," R. 44, to force them to participate in the robbery.

Likewise, Carroll testified that "[i]t is true that I have made a trade to save my own life . . . I agreed to come up here and testify in order to save my own neck." R. 47. He added that Woodson "and Tucker went willingly and did whatever they did willingly," ibid., and that he himself "participated in the crimes on my own; Luby did not make me." R. 48.

At the close of the State's evidence, a hearing was held in 11/
the absence of the jury at which petitioner Waxton tendered a
guilty plea to charges of armed robbery and accessory after the
fact to murder. Petitioner Waxton's counsel stated:

11/Just before this in camera hearing was held, the following exchange occurred after the trial court had denied petitioner Woodson's motion for a mistrial (a motion based on certain discrepancies between Tucker's trial testimony and the summary which had previously been furnished defense counsel):

"MR. TWISDALE [Solicitor]: . . . Your Honor, I would like to state for the record that Mr. McCormick and I have had several pleading negotiations sessions. I met him at least twice in his office and at least one time up here and I have just as much idea of his client entering pleas Monday morning as I did Max McLeod [Tucker's attorney] or Sammy Stephenson [Carroll's attorney] and I say pleas of guilty.

MR. McCORMICK [Counsel for Petitioner Woodson]: I'm's sorry I didn't catch that. Are you saying that we indicated that we were going to plead guilty?

MR. TWISDALE: Yes, sir.

MR. McCORMICK: I'd like to say that I have never stated that to Mr. Twisdale, I have told him that I would make certain recommendations to my client and I have consistently told him that Woodson says he was not guilty.

MR. TWISDALE: I am saying, your Honor, as a result of our discussion I was under as much impression that pleas of guilty being entered in his case as is Sammy Stephenson or Max McLeod until this morning. [sic]

MR. McCORMICK: I did not offer you one did I?

MR. TWISDALE: No, sir, but I said I had the same impression.

COURT: Motions for mistrial are denied and again I'm going to let the record stand for itself on the happenings up until now."

R. 70-71.

"He [Waxton] . . . stated to me that he desired to plead guilty to the same thing Mr. Tucker had pled guilty to and stated that he had -- that he was not any more guilty of anything than was the defendant, Mr. Tucker, and that he did not feel that it was fair or right for Tucker to be given an opportunity to plead guilty without his having been afforded the same opportunity . . . [I]t does appear to me that there would be a basic injustice and inequality in the light of the evidence which has been heretofore presented, and accepting for the moment without admitting that testimony of the defendant Tucker is true in all respects, in the light of [the fact] that it does appear to me that the defendant Waxton could not legally be guilty of any offense greater than any offense for which the defendant Tucker is allegedly guilty, and therefore, to accept such pleas as have been accepted from the defendant Tucker . . . [and not to afford] the defendant Waxton the same opportunity and . . . the same type of pleas . . . produces an inequality and unjust results which I believe our law does not contemplate. I would have to say in all honesty and candor, in the light of the evidence that we have heard up to this point, it would seem to me to be most unjust and inequitable to the defendant Waxton to be subjected to a punishment greater than that to which the defendant Tucker might be subjected under his pleas, if the defendant Waxton, wanted to tender the same kind of guilty pleas which the defendant Tucker tendered, and Mr. Waxton tells me that he does want to tender such a plea."

R. 83, 84-85. Petitioner Waxton was then examined by the trial court concerning his comprehension of the tender and his desire to enter such pleas. The Solicitor, however, declared simply, "I cannot accept the pleas," R. 87, and the trial continued.

Petitioner Waxton testified in his defense, and he gave an account of the robbery that was similar to that given by Tucker and Carroll. He said, however, that he had punched Woodson in the eye because Woodson owed him \$3.00 and had declared "I don't have anything," when Waxton asked him for the money. R. 88-89.

He also testified that he had never owned a derringer, that Tucker

carried a pistol in his pocket on the night of the robbery, and 12 that Tucker shot both Mrs. Butler and Mr. Stancil. R. 89, 90.

"Planning of the robbery began in the trailer park. All of us were giving suggestions of what to do. Tyrone gave suggestions. On June 3 we all of a sudden just came together to rob the store. We all had been talking about it.

I am referring to James Tyrone Woodson, Johnnie Lee Carroll, Leonard Maurice Tucker and myself. We had talked earlier about robbing another E-Z Shop on Cumberland Street but then decided not to rob it after someone made the remark there were too many customers coming in and out of that one." 13/

R. 94-95. On the evening of June 3, 1974, "[w]hen Tucker got to my trailer, he said, 'Are you ready to go?' and I said, 'Yes, I'm ready.' We all four agreed we were ready." R. 89. Petitioner Waxton denied forcing anyone to participate in the robbery, and he declared that the four of them split the proceeds of the robbery equally. R. 93.

Petitioner Woodson also took the stand and gave his account of the robbery. He "became addicted to hard drugs", R. 99, in Newark, New Jersey, and had gone to North Carolina with Waxton to break his drug habit.

^{12/} On direct examination, he testified that it was Woodson's idea to test-fire the rifle before the robbery. R. 89. On cross examination, he stated that "Tucker suggested that Woodson test-fire the rifle." R. 92.

^{13/} According to Waxton, "[a]ll four of us talked about it [a robbery] and planned it in advance because Johnnie Lee [Carroll] and Tyrone [Woodson] were unemployed. They said they were going to pull a job. I said, 'Why not?'" R. 91.

"Waxton had mentioned the robbery to me on the morning before the robbery. I never agreed to go along. When he brought the subject up I would not say anything. Most of that day (June 3) Tucker and I stayed together. We made two trips to the store to buy wine. We drank. We discussed the proposed robbery by Luby. Tucker said Waxton had mentioned it to him too. I told Tucker I wasn't going to be in no robbery and he said the same thing."

R. 99. Later that evening, Waxton came to Woodson's trailer:

"He said, 'Look at you, you are drunk.' Well he cursed, he said, 'M...F..., look at you, you are drunk,' and I said, 'So what,' and he said, 'So what, you are drunk.' Just like that. And I said, 'So what, I am not going nowhere,' and that is when he hit me. I grabbed my eye and I fell up against the trailer and then I went down. I never hit him. He did not hit me again. He said, 'If I don't kill you M...F..., Tucker will.' 'Come on and let's go.'"

R. 100. He took the rifle from Tucker and entered the car: "No one forced me in the car. I didn't want to go but, just put it this way, I was scared after being punched in the face and 14/
threatened in a kind of way." Ibid. Woodson did not recall any test-firing of the rifle. Ibid. While sitting in the car with Carroll outside the store, he heard one shot, and Tucker came running out. R. 101. He saw Mr. Stancil enter the store but made no effort to stop him; he then heard another shot and Waxton rushed out with paper money in his hand. Ibid. After they returned to Waxton's mother's house, there was no division of the money, and he saw Waxton give his mother "something that was sparkling."

<u>ibid</u>. (Woodson testified that he had "previously" seen Waxton with a ".22 Derringer, nickelplated, pearl handle", <u>ibid</u>.).

"We turned on the T.V. and I just turned around and started to mention about him shooting the woman but the woman was the last word I got out of my mouth before he had turned around and hit me in the other eye, and blood started coming out of my nose so I just got up and staggered to the bathroom and washed my face, you know, and went and laid across the bed; and after he hit me he told me never in my life to mention that woman's name again, ever. Said he did not want to hear no more about what happened."

R. 101-102. Petitioner Woodson introduced a signed confession he had given to the police on June 16, 1974. R. 108-114.

The trial court instructed the jury that it could find petitioners guilty or not guilty of first degree murder and armed robber.

R. 120-121, and that it could find petitioner Waxton guilty or not guilty of assault with a deadly weapon with intent to kill, R.

125 or guilty of the lesser-included-offense of assault with a deadly weapon with intent to inflict serious injury. Because the State had proceeded on the theory that petitioner Woodson was an aider and abettor in the robbery, the trial court instructed

^{14/} He later testified on cross examination: "I got in the car of my own free will, I knew there was going to be a robbery, and I knew we were going to the place . . . No one was keeping me in the car." R. 105.

^{15/ &}quot;The State proceeds on the theory in this case that the defendant Waxton committed murder or killed Mrs. Butler while in the perpetration of a robbery of the place of business where she worked and that he is thereby guilty of murder in the first degree, and it contends that the defendant Woodson was an aider and abettor in the robbery being committed and that murder having been committed in the perpetration of a robbery and he being an aider and abettor, then he is guilty of murder in the first degree equally with the defendant Waxton." R. 120-121.

the jury that "you cannot find Tyrone Woodson guilty of an offense unless you have also found Luby Waxton guilty of that offense, the same offense." R. 145. The trial court also instructed that the jury might find petitioner Woodson not guilty of any offense if it found that he had committed criminal acts under coercion 16/2 and duress.

The jury found both petitioners guilty of first degree murder and armed robbery, and it found petitioner Waxton guilty of assault with a deadly weapon with intent to kill. On June 26, 1975, the Supreme Court of North Carolina affirmed petitioners' convictions 17/ and sentences.

16/ "So, recognizing that the State must prove beyond a reasonable doubt that the conduct of Woodson was willfully, that is of his own free will, he did acts which constituted violations of the law with which he is charged, if you believe that he was under a wellfounded fear of death or serious bodily harm, immediate eminent [sic] and impending at the hands of Luby Waxton such as to cause him to go when he would not have gone to render assistance or be ready to render assistance when he would not have otherwise done so in the commission of an armed robbery, then under those circumstances Woodson would not be guilty of the armed robbery because he would not have acted of his own free will and willfully; but mere persuasion by another person or a lack of strong will or fear of slight or remote injury is not enough to excuse a criminal act . . . The defendant Woodson contends that he was coerced by reason of all the background and circans ances of his knowledge of Waxton, his authority over him and his power, the assault on him this day and knowledge of other assaults that he had committed, that he reasonably apprehended eminent [sic] danger of death or great bodily harm at Waxton's hands if he did not go along and take whatever part he took, and under those circumstances he contends he was coerced and was not guilty of either robbery or any killing which night have resulted from the robbery. The defendant Woodson contends that at most he was merely present. As I read to you earlier in the law, members of the jury, more presence at the scene of a crime does not constitute and ind abetting, and a person may be present even though a criminal act is taking place and do nothing to prevent it without being guilty of the offense charged, but if his presence under all the circumstances is a communication to the other person of his readiness and williamness to assist if needed, under those circumstances he may be an ider and abettor. "R.139-140.

17/ On July 10, 1975, Chief Justice the ic Sharp stayed execution of petitioners' death sentences in order to allow a petition for certiorari to be filed in the Court.

Before trial, both petitioners moved to quash and dismiss their indictments for murder "on the grounds that punishment for the same . . . has been invalidated by the ruling FURMAN v GEORGIA.

408 US 238 . . . [and] [t]hat GS 14-17 as presently written violates the Eighth and Fourteenth Amendments to the Constitution of the United States in that it grants discretion to the jury with respect to imposition of the death penalty." R. 19; see also R. 20, R. 25.

The motions were denied, R. 20, R. 25. These contentions were renewed in a motion to arrest judgment after verdict, R. 151-153, which was also denied, R. 152. Petitioner Woodson assigned these rulings as error (Assignment of Error Nos. 1, 2, 5, 7, 19 (R. 161-164)), as did petitioner Waxton (Assignment of Error Nos. 1, 3, 6, 8 (R. 160-161)). The North Carolina Supreme Court rejected their federal claims succinctly:

"In the last three years this Court has several times rejected these contentions. They have been thoroughly considered and further discussion would be merely repetitious. See State v. Waddell, 282 N.C.431, 194 S.E.2d 19 (1973); State v. Jarrette, 284 N.C. 625, 202 S.E.2d 721 (1974); State v. Fowler, 285 N.C. 90, 203 S.E.2d 803 (1974); State v. Crowder, 285 N.C. 42, 203 S.E.2d 38 (1974); State v. Avery, 286 N.C. 459, 212 S.E.2d 142 (1975)."

State v. Woodson & Waxton, __N.C.__, 215 S.E.2d 607, 615 (1975),
App. A, infra, at 10a.

REASONS FOR GRANTING THE WRIT

THE COURT SHOULD GRANT CERTIORARI TO CONSIDER WHETHER THE IMPOSITION AND CARRYING OUT OF THE SENTENCE OF DEATH FOR THE CRIME OF MURDER UNDER THE LAW OF NORTH CAROLINA VIOLATES THE EIGHTH OR FOURTEENTH AMENDMENT TO THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

Although there are now twenty-one cases pending here on petitions for certiorari which challenge the constitutionality of death sentences imposed under the capital procedure mandated by State v. Waddell, 282 N.C. 431, 194 S.E.2d 19 (1973), this is the first petition involving death sentences which arise under the post-Waddell North Carolina death penalty statute, enacted April 8, 1974, effective immediately. Because this statute does

not in any way alter North Carolina's capital procedure so as to limit or control the arbitrary and capricious infliction of that State's nominally mandatory death penalty, petitioner incorporates here by reference the arguments and authorities contained at pp. 26-140, Brief for Petitioner, Fowler v. North

Carolina, No. 73-7031 (attached as Appendix B, infra) concerning

(1) the arbitrary infliction of the death penalty due to prosecutorial charging discretion, plea bargaining, jury discretion, and executive clemency, and (2) the excessive cruelty of the death penalty.

This case, indeed, exemplifies the freakish administration $\frac{20}{}$ of the death penalty in North Carolina. Four persons were

^{18/} Henderson v. North Carolina, No. 73-6853 (filed June 8, 1974); Dillard v. North Carolina, No. 73-6875 (June 11, 1974); Noell v. North Carolina, No. 73-6876 (June 11, 1974); Jarrette v. North Carolina, No. 73-6877 (June 11, 1974); Crowder v. North Carolina, No. 73-6878 (June 11, 1974); Fowler v. North Carolina, No. 73-7031 (certiorari granted October 29, 1974); Honeycutt v. North Carolina, No. 73-7032 (July 9, 1974); Sparks v. North Carolina, No. 74-669 (November 29, 1974); Ward v. North Carolina, No. 74-6263 (March 28, 1975); Lampkins v. North Carolina, No. 74-6673 (June 9, 1975); Stegmann v. North Carolina, No. 74-6735 (June 26, 1975); Gordon v. North Carolina, No. 74-6733 (June 26, 1975); Lowery v. North Carolina, No. 75-5032 (July 7, 1975); Vick v. North Carolina, No. 75-5075 (July 11, 1975); Armstrong v. North Carolina, No. 75-5076 (July 11, 1975); McLaughlin v. North Carolina, No. 75-5077 (July 11, 1975); Woods v. North Carolina, No. 75-5091 (July 14, 1975); Simmons v. North Carolina, No. 75-5262 (August 12, 1975); Young v. North Carolina, No. 75-5281 (August 15, 1975); Vinson v. North Carolina, No. 75-5384 (September 3, 1975); Robbins v. North Carolina, No. 75-5426 (September 12, 1975).

^{19/} N.C. Sess. Laws 1973 (2nd sess., 1974), c. 1201, §1, amending N.C. Gen. Stat. §14-17 (1974 cum. supp.). There are now eighty-nine persons under sentence of death in North Carolina. Forty-five of these death sentences have been imposed under the State v. Waddell procedure; forty-four have been imposed under the new statute. See Appendix C, infra, for a complete listing of these cases.

^{20/} The kind of arbitrary discretion in the administration of the death penalty which is exemplified by the present consolidated case arising under the 1974 North Carolina death penalty statute parallels the same sort of discretion that appears in numerous pre-statutory prosecutions under State v. Waddell.

For example, five open murder indictments, sufficient to charge capital first degree murder, were returned against Albert Carey, Anthony Carey, James C. Mitchell, Harold Givens, and Antonio Dorsey for a June, 1973, killing during the course of a service station robbery in Charlotte, North Carolina. The State's evidence, as recounted by the Supreme Court of North Carolina, State v. Anthony Carey, 285 N.C. 497, 206 S.E.2d 213, 215-217 (1974), indicated that the two Careys and Dorsey remained in a car parked near the service station, while Mitchell and Givens went inside to rob it. During the course of the robbery, Mitchell shot and killed an attendant. Mitchell was allowed to plead guilty to second degree murder, was sentenced to thirty years imprisonment, State v. James C. Mitchell, Mecklenburg County Super. Ct. No. 73-CR-61589 (December 17, 1973), and testified against the Careys at their respective trials for first degree murder. Both Careys were convicted and sentenced to death. A nolle prosequi was entered against Givens, State v. Harold N. Givens, Mecklenburg County Super. Ct. No. 73-CR-46182 (August 31, 1973), and Dorsey, State v. Antonio Dorsey, Mecklenburg County Super. Ct. No. 73-CR-47181 (September 11, 1973). The Supreme Court of North Carolina reversed the convictions and death sentences of the two Careys under State v. Britt, 285 N.C. 256, 204 S.E.2d 817 (1974), because the trial court had refused to let defense counsel inform the respective juries that death was the punishment for first degree murder. State v. Anthony Carey, supra; State v. Albert Carey, 285 N.C. 509, 206 S.E.2d 222 (1974). Albert Carey was retried and was

indicted for the capital crime of felony murder, but two (one who went into the store where the killing took place and one who remained outside as a lookout) were allowed to plead guilty to lesser charges. All four testified at petitioners' joint trial and admitted their complicity in the planning and implementation of the robbery: as the North Carolina Supreme Court noted, under the applicable legal doctrines of conspiracy and felony murder, "since each admitted he was one of the four who conspired to rob the shop, legally it makes no difference . . [who] fired the shot [that killed Mrs. Butler]. " State v. Woodson & Waxton, N.C.__, 215 S.E.2d 607, 615 (1975); App. A, infra, at 9a. The punishments imposed upon the four equally culpable defendants do not, of course, square with this "legal" logic. Instead they illustrate -- if further illustration were needed -- the extralegal, arbitary administration of "mandatory" capital punishment as practiced in North Carolina and documented in the Fowler brief. "These two death sentences are cruel and unusual in the same way that being struck by lightning is cruel and unusual." Furman v. Georgia, 408 U.S. 238, 309 (1972) (Mr. Justice Stewart, concurring).

The North Carolina Legislature has manifestly followed the lead of the North Carolina Supreme Court in preserving procedures that invite juries to nullify the "mandatory" death penalty in sympathetic cases. Codifying the rule of State v. Britt, 285 N.C. 256, 204 S.E.2d 817 (1974), it has provided that defense counsel may inform veniremen on voir dire that a death penalty will be imposed upon the return of a verdict of guilty to a capital crime (N.C. Gen. Stat. §15-176.3 (repl. vol. 1975)), may request the trial judge to instruct the jury that the death penalty will be imposed upon the return of a verdict of guilty to a capital crime (N. C. Gen. Stat. §15-176.4 (repl. vol. 1975)), and may in closing argument in a capital case "indicate the consequences of a verdict of guilty," (N.C. Gen. Stat. §15-176.5 (repl. vol. 1975). The clear and inevitable result of these statutory provisions, as of the Britt rule, is to invoke de facto jury discretion which undercuts the imposition of North Carolina's supposedly mandatory death penalty in a randomly and arbitrarily selected number of cases.

^{20/} cont'd.

again convicted of first degree murder and sentenced to death, State v. Albert Carey, Mecklenburg County Super. Ct. No. 73-CR-46178, 61586 (December 19, 1974); his appeal is pending in the Supreme Court of North Carolina, State v. Albert Carey, N. C. Sup. Ct. No. 67, Mecklenburg. Anthony Carey was not retried, however, and the State entered a nolle prosequi on December 19, 1974, State v. Anthony Carey, Mecklenburg County Super. Ct. No. 73-CR-46179.

CONCLUSION

Petitioners respectfully pray that the petition for a writ of certiorari be granted.

Respectfully submitted,

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Appendix A:

State v. Woodson & Waxton, N.C. ____,
215 S.E.2d 607 (1975).

substantial constitutional question, Carl E. Gaddy, Jr., Raleigh, for defendant appellant.

George M. Anderson, Raleigh, for plaintiff appelles.

PER CURIAM.

The sole question presented by this appeal is whether defendant is entitled to a jury trial in a criminal contempt proceed-

- [1] The identical question was considered and answered in the negative in Blue Jeans Corporation v. Clothing Workers, 275 N.C. 503, 169 S.E.2d 867. We reaffirm that well reasoned and scholarly opinion by Justice Hushins. See also Codispoti v. Pennsylvania, 418 U.S. 506, 91 S.Ct. 2687, 41 L.Ed.2d 912; Taylor v. Hayes, 418 U.S. 488, 94 S.Ct. 2697, 41 L.Ed.2d 897.
- [2] G.S. § 7A-30(1) provides that there may be an appeal of right to this Court from decisions of the Court of Appeals which directly involve a substantial question arising under the Constitution of the United States or the Constitution of this State. However, our decisions interpreting this statute require that an appellant must either allege and show the existence of a real and substantial constitutional question which has not already been the subject of conclusive judicial determination or suffer dismissal. State v. Closon, 274 N.C. 295, 163 S 1:2d 376, cert. denied, 393 U.S. 1057, 1. Criminal Law = 1169.7 89 S.Ct. 876, 21 L.Ed.24 780.
- [3] We hold that appellant has failed to show the existence of a substantial constitutional question which has not already been the subject of conclusive judicial de-

termination, and therefore plaintiff's motion to dismiss is allowed.

Appeal dismissed.



STATE of North Carolina

James Tyrone WOODSON and Luby Waxton.

No. 127.

Supreme Court of North Carolina.

June 25, 1975.

Four defendants were indicted for murder and other offenses in connection with the robbery of a store. The solicitor accepted guilty pleas from two defendants to lesser offenses in return for their testimony. The Superior Court, Harnett County, Henry A. McKinnon, Jr., J., rendered judgment and imposed mandatory death sentence and defendants appealed. The Supreme Court, Sharp, C. J., held that the death penalty statute is constitutional, that the codefendants' testimony was admissible, and that the agreement with codefendants did not violate defendants' constitutional

Exum, J., concurred and filed opinion.

Defendants were not prejudiced by admission of testimony of coconspirators who pleaded guilty to lesser offenses where defendants themselves testified to facts make ing them guilty of greater offense charged.

2. Criminal Law \$508(7)

Testimony of defendants' eoconspirators, who pleaded guilty to lesser offenses, was competent.

3. Criminal Law c= 1213

608 N.C.

Statutes providing death sentence for first-degree murder and first-degree rape are constitutional. G.S. §§ 14-17, 14-21.

4. Criminal Law == 302(1)

Prosecutor's announcement before trial that State will not seek verdict of greater degree of offense but would ask for verdict of lesser degree is tantamount to taking nolle prosequi or acquittal on charge of greater degree.

5. Criminal Law =302(1)

Shortest and best mode of carrying out promise of immunity is for solicitor to exereise right to enter nolle prosequi.

6. Constitutional Law == 250.2(5), 268(8) Criminal Law == 273(3)

Solicitor had authority to agree to accept guilty pleas to lesser offenses in return for testimony against other defendants and , agreement did not deny other defendants due process and equal protection. Const. 1970, art. 1, §§ 19, 27; U.S.C.A.Const. Amend. 14.

Appeal by defendants under G.S. § 7A-27(a) from McKinnon, J., 2 December 1974 Special Session of the Superior Court of Harnett.

At the 24 June 1974 Session, in separate bills, defendants, James Tyrone Woodson, aged 23, and Luby Waxton, aged 21, along with Leonard Maurice Tücker, aged 19, and Johnnie Lee Carroll, aged 18, were indicted under G.S. § 15-144 for the murder of Mrs. Shirley Whittington Butler on 3 June 1974. At the same time they were also indicted for the armed robbery of Mrs. Butler on 3 June 1974 and for conspiracy to commit armed robbery. In addition, defendant Waxton was indicted for feloniously assaulting Mr. R. N. Staneil on 3 June 1974 with a 22 caliber pistol with the intent to kill him, thereby inflicting upon him serious injuras, not resulting in death.

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At the 2 December 1974 Criminal Session. in exchange for their testimony as State's witnesses against Waxton and Woodson, the solicitor for the State dismissed the armed robbery charge against Carroll and the first-degree murder charges again t both Tucker and Carroll. Tucker was permitted to plead guilty to the armed robber Mrs. Butler and as an accessory often 1 ... fact to her murder. Carroll, who is a beaf brother of defendant Waxton, and permit ted to plead guilty as an accessor, this the fact to both the murder and armed roobery of Mrs. Butler.

At the trial, the State's first witness were several police officers, whose testimany tended to show:

About 10:30 p.m. on 3 June 1974, a police officer of the City of Dunn entered the 12 Z Shop on Pairground Road and found the body of Mrs. Butler, an employee of the shop, lying behind the eash register. She had been shot through the head at close range. The cash drawer had been removed from the register. Lying on the counter were a pack of Kool cigarettes, a dollar bill. a pack of matches, and a box of Cracker-Jacks. In due course, these items were collected and sent to the S.B.I., and Tucker's fingerprints were found on the pack of

Shortly after the discovery of Mrs. Butler's body police headquarters received a call from Mr. Stancil, who lived just across the street from the E-Z Shop. He reported he had been shot and requested help. The detective who went to his assistance found him bleeding badly and immediately took him to the hospital.

Mr. Staneil testified that about 10:15 p. m. he went to the E Z Shop and, as he entered, he noticed that Mrs. Butler was not in her usual place. A person, who was leaving in a burry, said to him something which sounded like, "look out." Almost

never saw Mrs. Butler, and he could not identify the person he saw leaving the shop.

George Willie Carroll (George Willie), the brother of Johnnie Lee Carroll (Carroll) and half-brother of Waxton, testified that about 8:30 p. m. on 3 June 1974 he lent his car to his brothers, that about 10:35 p. m. they had not returned it, and he went to the police station and "reported he wanted his car located." Later that night, George Willie, accompenied by Waxton, Carroll, and Tyrone Woodson, returned to the police station and reported that "the boys" had brought his car back.

Detective Mehlber testified that at 0:00 a. m, the next morning, June 4th, he went to the home of Waxton's mother and requested Waxton to accompany him to the police station Waxton did so, and after 20 30 minutes Mohiser returned him to his mother's. Immediately thereafter Waxton (so he testified later) arranged with a friend to take him and defendant Washon to the Fayetteville airport, where they emplaned for Newark, N. J. There they remained until June 14th when Detective Mohiner returned them to Dann.

On 16 June 1971 at 2 50 p. m., Woodson gave Detective Moldser the first statement be obtained from any of the four. In it he roll and Tucker were arrested. At 7:30 p. m. on June 16th, Tucker signed a confession time he gave them a statement. which implicated Woodson, Waxton, and Carroll On June 27th Carroll gave the to writing and signed.

simultaneously Stancil heard an explosion as witnesses on the grounds that they had and felt pain in his back. He started tos been indicted with Waxton and Woodson as ward the back of the store but, observing co-conspirators and principals for the nurthat blood was spurting from his arm, he der and robbery of Mrs. Butler and, if conwent home to call for help. A bullet had victed, all would have been subject to the entered his back, just to the left of his same punishment; that, as a result of "neaplne, and lodged in his arm. Mr. Stancil gotiations and plea bargaining" with the soliciter for the State, on 2 December 1974, Tucker and Carroll had been permitted to plead guilty to lesser offenses; that in consequence they were "prejudicial witnesses against Waxton and Woodson," and to permit them "to testify in an attempt to place the blame for the incident" on defendants infringes upon defendants' right to a fair trial; and that, after permitting Tucker and Carroll to plead guilty to lesser crimes, . the solicitor's election to put Woodson and Waxton on trial upon a charge for which the mandatory punishment upon conviction is death "is unjust, constitutes an unequal application of the laws of the State and denies them the equal protection of the laws as guaranteed by both the State and federal constitutions."

N. C. 609

The court, "being of the opinion that the matters raised go to the weight and credibility of the witnesses and not to their competency to testify," overruled the objections to the competency of Tucker and Carroll as witnesses and permitted them to

Tucker's testimony, summarized except when quoted, is briefed below;

He entered pleas of guilty to the armed robbery of Mrs. Butler and to being an accessory after the fact to her murder in an implicated bimself, Waxton, Tucker, and attempt to save himself, I nowing that upon Carroll in the roldery and falling. On the these pleas he could receive sentences totalbasis of the information he furnished, Car- ing 40 years. He first discussed this case with the officers on June 16th, at which

Tucker, a native of New Jersey, came to Dunn on 13 May 1974 and stayed around officers a statement, but it was not reduced "without any income, drinking wine, and smoking marijuana." He became acquaint-Prior to the time Tucker and Carroll were and with Waxton and Woodson about two called as witnesses for the State, council weeks after his arrival in Harnett County. for defendants objected to their competency On June 3rd I. and Woodson spent a good Woodson had paid.

About 9:30 p. m. Waxton came to Tucker's trailer. He inquired for Woodson, who was not there, and told Tucker to follow him. In about three minutes Tucker walked toward Woodson's trailer, which was about a block away. As he approached the trailer, he saw Waxton hit Woodson in the face with his hand and heard him advise Woodson that if he didn't join the group either Tucker or Waxton would kill him. Woodson had previously told Tucker that he did not plan to take any part in the robbery. The three men then proceeded to Waxton's trailer, where Carroll gave Woodson a towel to put over his eye. Waxton got a nickelplated Derringer pistol from a cabinet and put it in his pocket. Tucker took Waxton's 22 automatic rifle from the couch and handed it to Woodson. Waxton and Tucker then got in the back seat of an automobile which belonged to Carroll's brother, George Willie. Woodson laid the gun down in the front seat of the car and got in beside Carroli, who drove the car

Waxton announced that they were going to rob the E.Z Shop. A week earlier he had told Woodson and Tucker he was going to rob a place. As Carroll drove by, they saw a customer entering the shop; so Carroll drove a short distance down the road and stopped. Waxton was giving all the orders and he directed Woodson to test-fire the rifle by shooting it into the ground. After he had done so the group then drave back to the F. Z Shop and parked. Up until would accompany Waxton into the store, but at "the last minute" Waxton changed his mind and gave Woodron the duty to cover the front door. He told Tueker to po into the store with him and instructed body in."

the counter, and Tucker asked her for a trailer Woodson told him that Waxton had

part of the day drinking wine for which pack of Kools, which she handed to him Tucker paid for the cigarettes and moved down to the right of the counter. Waxton then asked for a pack of Kools. As Mrs. Butler handed it to him, he procured the Derringer from his back pocket and fired one shot into the left side of her head. She fell to the floor and Waxton jumped over the counter, took the money tray out of the open cash register, and put it on the counter. Tucker picked up the tray and started to the door. When he reached the door he met Mr. Stancil coming in. He told Stancil "to look out" and continued toward the car. Outside, Tucker heard a second shot from inside the store. He got into the car and Waxton "came out of the store walking fast with some paper money in his hand." The four then went to the home of Waxton's mother. There he and Tucker went into the bathroom and counted the money, about \$280.00, which Waxton kept.

> From the home of Waxton's mother, the four went downtown to the Shaft Inn. George Willis was there and Carroll went with his brother to the police station. Upon their return to the Inn, Carroll took the others back to Waxton's trailer.

Carroll's testimony, summarized except when quoted, tended to show:

He has lived in Dunn all his life. In June 1974 he was unemployed and living with his mother. Prior to June 3rd he had known Tucker three or four days and Woodson about six months. His half-brother, Wayton, at age 18, left North Carolina and went to New Jersey. Waxton returned to North then, the plan had been that Woodson Carolino in 1974 and thereafter Carroll saw him almost daily. Waxton showed him some of the karate "moves" he had learned in New Jersey. On June 3rd he and Wayston borrowed the automobile belonging to their brother Geerge Willie, who lent it to Woodsen to stay outside "and don't let no- Waxton "for about 10-15 minutes." About 9:00 p. m. Carroll drove the car to Waxton's As the two walked to the store Waxton trailer. As he approached it, he saw Waxtold Tucker to ask for a pack of eigerettes. ton coming across the field with Weselson In the store they saw Mrs. Butler behind and Tucker walking behind him. At the

drinking, and Carroll gave him a towel to cover the eye.

Soon thereafter Woodson took a rifle from Tucker and got in the front seat with the rifle in his hand. Both Woodson and Tucker went willingly and did whatever they did willingly. He himself participated in the crime on his own. Waxton did not make him. Carroll drove the ear past the E-Z Shop and stopped on a dirt road, where Woodson got out and fired the rifle into the ground twice. The four then drove back to the E-Z Shop. Carroll parked the car and Waxton told Tucker to go into the store with him. They got out of the car leaving Woodsen and Carroll sitting in the front seat. Woodson was the first to see Mr. Stancil come across the street. He got out of the car with the rifle but Carroll pulled him back and told him to put the rifle down. Mr. Staneil went into the store as Tucker was coming out with a cash register money tray in his hand. Prior to that, Carroll had heard one shot fired. After Tucker came out and the man went in, he heard one more shot. By the time Tucker got to the car, Waxton came out running with some dollar bills in his hand. He said, "let's go," and Carroll drove the car back to his mother's house.

Back at home Carroll took the rifle from the car and put it in the pantry. He and Woodson sat in the living room while Tucker and Waxten went into the bathroom. About ten minutes their after the four went dountoun, where they met George Vedille. He and Wasten "walked to the police station and got it straight about the car." Carrell then took Waxton, Woodson, and Tucker to Waston's trailer. Carroll next saw Waxten about 4.00 a. m. on June 5th when he and Woodmin come to his mother's. house. Waston told Carrell to get rid of

punched him in the eye because he had been port. Carroll received none of the money from the robbery.

> Carroll saw Waxton and Woodson when they were brought back to North Carolina on June 14th, and he himself was arrested on June 16th. On June 4th he had talked to Chief Cobb and had denied that Waxton had anything to do with this case. What he told Chief Cobb on that date was untrue. On June 16th he didn't say anything. On June 27th he made a statement to Chief Cobb after being advised of his constitu-

On cross-examination Carroll testified. "1 made a trade to save my own life. I am not trying to put anything on Luby [Waxton]; , I'm just telling what happened. I agreed to come up here and testify in order to save my own neck."

Chief Cobb's testimony tended to show that the statement which Carroll gave him on June 27th was in substantial accord with his testimony; that as a result of the information Carroll gave him, he found the money tray buried under his mother's house where he had said it was; that Carroll told him all previous statements were untrue; that he had made no notes on June 27th of the questions he asked Carroll and the answers which he gave, and Carroll signed no statement: that he had tried unsuccessfully to locate the pixtol which killed Mrs. Butler.

At the close of the State's evidence defendants moved (1) to dismiss the charges against them because Tucker and Carroll had given certain testimony which did not appear in the "summary of 'Statement of State's Witnesses'" which the solicitor furnished counsel prior to trial; and (2) "if not dismissed then, in any event, a juror be withdrawn and a new trial ordered." The Court denied these motions.

On the ground that the following items were not continued in the summary defendthe cash tray, which he had put in the ant Woodson then specifically moved to pantry, and Carroll buried it beneath his strike the statements (1) "that Woodson mother's house. That morning he went took the gun from Tucker" at Waxton's with Waxten and Woodson to Payetteville trailer; (2) "that Woodson got out of the when Jethro Wynn took them to the airs car and test-fired the rifle by shooting it

twice on the ground" before the group stopped at the E-Z Shop; (3) "that Woodson had a gun before, during, at and after the robbery while they were in the car"; and (4) that Woodson with the gun attempted to get out of the car to stop Staneil." This motion was also denied.

these motions the solicitor told the court "for the record that Mr. McCormick (World son's attorney) and [he] had had several pleading negotiation ressions" and that it was his impression that Woodson would enter a plea on Monday morning along with Tucker and Carroll. Whereas Mr. McCormick informed the court that had would plead guilty; that he told bin ! -"would make certain recommendation to his client" Woodson, but he had "constitute ly told the solicitor that Woodson says that he was not guilty." The solicitor's respective was that although Mr. McCormick dad not offer him a plea but, as a result of their Woodson would enter pleas in his cases just as Tucker and Carroll had done.

At the conclusion of the foregois, die a sion, defendant Waxton, through his attreney, Mr. Johnson, requested the court's jenmission to make a metion in and the Whereupon, in the absence of the J. v. in the presence of only Judge Mainten . 1. 1963 Volkswagen, but they defendant Woodson and his attendant to the volkers. McCormick, Mr. Glen Johnson, the the court reporter, and a deprise . defendant Waston tendered to the ! the fact of murder and guilty character robbery, the same crimes to will have had pled guilty." Mr. Johnson C. the judge and the solicitor that Wasten had said to him "that he thought he vale. tled to the same treatment that '. received and he wanted to do the come and the come the rifle to "make sure it thing Tucker had done." When y court inquired of the solicitor, "Y ... your position on that?" and the answered, "I cannot accept the plant

Each defendant testified in his own behalf and offered no other evidence. Waxtor's testimony, summarized except when quoted, tended to show:

Waxton, a native of North Carolina, after living nine years in New Jersey, returned to Dunn in November 1973. Woodson, whom During the course of the argument: on he had known for eight years in New Jersov, came with him, and the two lived together in a mobile home park. Waxton met Tucker, also a resident of the park, about two weeks prior to 3 June 1974. Having "talked about it and planned it in advance," Viexton, Woodson, Carroll and Tucker had agreed to rob the E Z Shop that night Wordson and Carroll were unemployed. never stated to the solicitor that hi client "They said they wanted money; so they your going to pull a job. I said, Why

About 9:00 p. m. on June 3rd, Waxton went looking for Woodson because Woodson "knew we was going to rob the D-Z Shop." He found him at the trailer of his girl discussions, it was "his impression" that friend Woodson had been drinking, but he was red drank. An argument ensued. "He said sumeth r, to disrespect me and I said something to disrespect him; so I hit him." Wa on then left without having menticand the robbery to Woodson. Woodson followed behind him and, when they got to We there in Carroll was there in car. Waxton owned a 1973 - from another trailer and . baly was ready to go. Ev-+ 125, and the four left in plea of guilty to being an access by the same with Carroll driving. v ' v Stock rifle, which Wanton it "to kill snahet."

> They they drove by the 1-2 Shop, which nile from Waston's trail-: dirt road where Wood on . " In " Lifter he had fired it twice, ".e E. Z. Shop. Woodbon . 11 . d in the car while Wasto in , went inside.

spoke, Tucker asked for a package of cigarettes. After she gave him the eigarcties he shot her. I then jumped over the counter and started getting the money out of the cash register. I got a handful of money and then got afraid so I started running out As I ran out I met Mr. Stancil and I called Tucker and told him, 'let's go, somebody is coming. After I got a short distance from the car I heard another shot. I didn't have any gun or weapon at any time there in the store and I didn't have any gun or weapon after I came out of the store. When I heard the second shot Leonard [Tucker] was coming out and we both got in the car. We were not at the Pool Store more than five minutes"

From the E-Z Shap the four went to the home of Waxton's pather, where he counted the money in the bathroom. There was \$325.00 and he divided it equally. Tucker handed the gun, a nickel-plated Derringer he had obtained overseas, to Waxton's mother and asked her to keep it for him. Later Tooker changed his mind and took the gen with him when they left to go. downline n. There they saw George Willie, who told them he thought they had pulled a robbery. When they denied the accusation, he asked them to accompany him to the police station. They went and George Willie teld the police he had found he car. The next morning, after Detective Mobiler had plane to New Jenry, where they stayed

Tucker shot the kedy but Meliner told him eye, the rifle by his side." When he heard

Waston's version of what happened in- he "was telling something that was not side is as followed: "I was about to ask for true"; that the officers never gave him an a package of Kool eigarettes but before 1 opportunity to make a statement before he took the stand; that they only listened to what Tucker, Woodson, and Carroll had to

Woodson's testimony, summarized except when quoted, tended to show: He and Waxton were good friends. In November 1973 Waxton had brought him to North Carolina to help him escape the drug habit which he had acquired in New Jersey. At first he had lived with Waxton or his mother and George Willie had gotten him a job. On June 3rd Woodson was living with his girl friend. From time to time Waxton reminded Woodson of what he had done for

Waxton had "mentioned" the robbery to Woodson on the morning of June 2nd, but he "never agreed to go along." Woodson and Tucker spent most of the day on June 3rd drinking wine which had been purchased with money Woodson's girl friend had given him. He and Tucker had agree! that they would not be in any robbery. That evening when Waxton found Woodson at his girl friend's trailer, Waxton curred him and told him he was drunk. When he told Wayton it made no difference because he was not going anywhere, Waxton hit him in the eye and said, "If I don't kill you Tucker will. Come on; let's go!"

Workson was "pretty high" but he wasn't drunk. He knew what he was doing. He talked to him. Waxton and Wordson took a decided to go with Waxton and followed him to his to aker. There Tucker handed until Molder brought them back to North him Waston's rifle, and he got in the car Carolina. After be and Viceshon had been with it of his "ewn free will." He knew in the Dunn jul for "a while," Waxton Diere was going to be a robbery, and he asked Nobier to bring Woodson over and | knew Waxton had the Derringer. No one let him tell the detective "who did the forced him to go. He does not recall testshooting." Makiser complied with the res ing the gun. On the way to the E-Z Shep. quest and "brought West on across the ball was the first time Waxton told him "to to him" and aclad Woodcon who did the watch the front door and not let anybody shooting. Woodson said Tucker had done in." He might have gone in with Waston if he had asked him. Woodson, however, Waxten testified that he told the officers "was laying back with the towel over his

jumped up and saw Tucker coming out the door and Mr. Stancil going in, but he made no move to stop him. Then he heard a , second shot. Tucker was outside the building and almost immediately Woodson saw Waxton emerging with paper money in his

From the E-Z Shop the four went to the home of Waxton's mother. Waxton handed his .22 Derringer with the nickel-plated, pearl handle to his mother. He and Tucker had the money. They went into the bathroom and closed the door, but "there was no division of the money . . . at that time." After going downtown and seeing George Willie, Woodson and Waxton returned to the home of Waston's mother. There Woodson "started to mention about him shooting the woman," but the woman was the last word he got out of his mouth before Waxton hit him in the other eye and staggered him. "He told me never in my life to mention that weman's name again, ever."

The next morning, after Vaxtor returned from the police station, be told Woodson "to get a few pieces" (clothes); - that they were going to New Jersey. Jethro Wynn took them to the nirport and Carroll went along. At the airport Waxton gave Woodson money from the robbery with which to buy his ticket and then balled up the rest of the money and teld him "to hold it." In New Jersey, at the home of Wexton's mother-in-law, he "gave back all the money" to Waxton. When Woodson was later picked up, he returned to North Carolina voluntarity.

Later, in the Dunn jail, Woodson heard Waxten "when he was hellering about make ing a confession-he wanted to speak to Mehiser." The detective took him over "in front of Waxton," who told Mohiser he knew who shot the woman and that he miss the charges against them and this would tell him where the pistel was if he 'contentions that because certain items of would pick Tucker up and lock him up, evidence were emitted from the summaries Woodson did not make any statement at . furnished them by the solicitor are with et that time because he "had already made merit and require no discussion. Each de-[his] signed statement." He heard Waxton fundant went upon the stand and voluntaries

the first shot from inside the store, he tell Mohiser "that he did not do the shore; ing; that it was Leonard Tucker."

> As to Woodson the jury returned verdicts of "Guilty of Murder in the First Degree as charged," and "Guilty of Armed Robbery as charged." Upon these verdicts the charge of felonious assault having been merged in the charge of first-degree murder, the court imposed only the mandatory sentence of death.

As to Waxton the verdicts were "Guilty of Murder in the First Degree as charged." "Guilty of Armed Robbery as charged," and "Guilty of Assault with a Deadly Weapon with Intent to Kill Inflicting Serious Injury as charged." Upon the charge of felonious assault the court adjudged that Waxton be imprisoned for twenty years. Upon the murder and robbery convictions, the robbery charge having been merged in the charge of first-degree murder, the court imposed the mandatory sentence of death

Each defendant appealed from the sentence of death directly to this Court under G.S. § 7A-27(a) and, upon Waxton's motion, we certified his appeal from the sentence imposed upon his conviction of felonionascault for initial appollute review by this Court under G.S. § 7% 31(a).

Rufus L. Edmisten, Atty. Gen., and James E. Magner, Jr., Asst. Atty. Gen., Raleigh, for the State.

Edward B. McCormich, Lillington, for James Tyrene Woodson, defendant appel-

W. A. Johnson, Lillington, for Luby Vince. ton, defendant appollant.

SHARP, Chief Justice,

[1] Patently, defendants' motion to dis-

admitted he v. , one of the four who con- 412 413 (1910).

spired to rob the shop, legally it makes no difference whether Waxton or Tucker fired

any one of the compinators in the attempts dence § 45 (Brandis Rev. 1973). ed perpetration of the crime, each and all of

[2] Had the to . . ; of Tucker and Carrell been becomputer to the testimony of defendants them class would styr in their contention that its admission constituted prejudicial error. However, the testimony of their co-complicators was complicat. "A co-complicator is an accomplice, and it always a completent vitnes; percenting of had received such a promise.

ly testified to facts which make him guilty otherwise competent to testify is not renof murder in the first degree. As council dered incompetent by the fact that he has a concede, the only significant difference in premise of immunity or lenience for himtheir testimony relates to who fired the self." Annot., 120 A.L.R. 742, 751 (1938); shot which Islad Mrs. Butler during the see State v. Watson, 283 N.C. 381, 196 robbary of the E Z Shop; and, since each S.E.2d 212 (1973); annot., 24 L.R.A. (N.S.)

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As Justice Barnhill (later Chief Justice) said in State v. Roberson, 215 N.C. 781, 787, 3 S.E.2d 277, 279 (1939), "It bears against "When a morder is 'committed in the the credibility of a witness that he is an perpetration or attempt to perpetrate any accomplice in the crime charged and testirobbery, burglery or other felo- fies for the prosecution; and the pendency ny," G.S. § 11-17 declares it murder in the of an indictment against the wite as indifirst degree. In these instances the law cates indirectly a similar possibility of his presumes premeditation and deliberation, currying favor by testifying for the State; and the State is not put to further proof of so, too, the existence of a promise or just either. . . . Furthernove, when a expectation of pardon for his share as accompliant, is formed to comman a robbery or complied in the crime charged. 2 Wigmore burglary, and a murder is committed by on Evidence, 2d ed., 359," See 1 N.C. Dyi-

Judge McKinnon correctly hold that the conspirators are guilty of murder in the Tucker and Carroll were competent witfirst degree." (Citations omitted.) State v. norses and that their status as co-conspira-Pox, 277 N.C. 1, 17, 175 S.H.21 L01, 571 tors testifying for the State bore upon the weight and credibility of their testimony and not upon its competency.

G.S. § 14-17, as rewritten on 8 April 1974 by the enactment of N.C.Sets.Laws, th. 1201, 6 1 provides that murder in the first degree "shall be punished with death." Defendants contend, however, that capital punishment "under the laws of North Carolina [would] violate U.S Corst, Amend. VIII course he is compact round's" State v. Gold. and Amend. XIV, § 1, and N.C.C. n.t. art. 1, berg, 201 N.C. 161, 245, 144 S.E.2d 201, 548. \$6 19, 27." In the last three years this (1964) "It is classes . . . that in Court has revered the a rejected the a conpractically every consulare an accompany tention. They have been thoroughly contestificates a with a feet the presention, he sidered and further discusion would be is induced to do a by a protein, or at least merely repetition. See State v. Waddell, by a hope and expectation, of immunity of 282 N.C 481, 194 S II 24 19 (1955); State v. lenionry for his oil, and that the rate Jamette, 201 N.C. 625, 202 S.E.P.1 7.21 which rules an eccumples a congetent (1974). State v. Powler, 285 N.C. 10, 203 witness could be of hit's benefit if he very S.E.2d State (1.74), State v. Crowder, 24, made he suggested by the more fact that L. N.C. 42, 203 S.I.I.M as (1974). State v. Avery, 200 N.C. 55, 212 S.L. Al 103 (107-).

"In accordance with this view, the courts, [3] Albeit three members of the Court both English and American, have beld with discented as to the death penalty in each of r substantial unanimaty that a winner who is the foregoing cases and voted to remand

for the imposition of a sentence of life imprisonment, the dissents were not based upon the premise that the death sentence constituted cruel and unusual punishment or that there were any constitutional infirmities in capital punishment per se. On the contrary, the thesis of the discents was (1) that the decision of the United States Supreme Court in Furman v. Georgia, 408 U.S. 238, 92 S.Ct. 2726, 33 L.Dd.2d 346 (1972), decided 29 June 1972, had invalidated the death penalty provisions of G.S. § 14-17 (and also G.S. § 14-21, G.S. § 14-52, and G.S. § 14-58), enacted in 1949; and (2) that until the statutes which made death the punishment for first-degree murder, first-degree barglary, rape, and arson were rewritten or amended by the General Asserably, this Court could not reinstate capital punishment.

On & April 1974 the General Assembly rewrote G.S. & 14-17 and G.S. § 14-21 to provide the death sentence for first-degree murder and first-degree rape. At the same time it rewrote G.S. § 14-52 and G.S. § 14-58 to provide life imprisonment for burglary in the first degree and arson. As to first-degree murders and first-degree rapes committed after & April 197', by its rewrite of G.S. § 14 17 and G.S. § 14 .21, the General Assembly eliminated the grounds upon which three members of the Court had dissented to the imposition of the death sentence for such crimes committed prior to that date. The felony-murder for which Waxton and Wood on have been convicted was committed on 3 June 1971-50 day. after the legislature reduchred the publi policy of this State with reference to capital punishment. Until changed by the General Assembly, or invalidated by the Supreme Court of the United States, that policy must stand.

death penalty. [10a]

Defendants next contend that since Way. ton, Woodson, Carroll, and Tucker, the four conspirators, are equally guilty of first-degree murder it would be "fundamentally unfair" to permit two of them to pleat guilty to offenses less than capital in exchange for their testimony against the others. Defendant Waxton, who tendered at the close of the evidence the same plea which Tucker tendered prior to the trial, contends that the solicitor's refusal to accept his plea was an arbitrary exercise of power which denied him due process and the equal protection of the laws. Defendant Woodson, who tendered no plea and contended throughout that he was not guilty, argues that "due process and equal protection" require that he receive no greater punishment than his accomplices could have given under their pleas.

"From the earliest times, it has been found necessary, for the detection and purishment of crime, for the state to resort to the criminals thomselves for testimony with which to convict their confederates in erime. While such a course offers a premium to treachery, and sometimes permits the more guilty to escape, it tends to prevent and break up combinations, by making criminals suspicious of each other, and it often leads to the punishment of guilty persons who would otherwise creap-Therefore, on the ground of public polar, it has been uniformly held that a state may contract with a criminal for his exemptifrom prosecution if he shall hamatic as i fairly make a full disclosure of the cris a whether the party testified against is convicted or not. (Citations emitted.)" Ingram v. Prescott, 111 Fla. 320, 321-322, 149 So. 369 (1955); Henderson v. State, 135 115 548, 185 St. 625, 110 A.J. R. 712 (1939). For the history of the "ancient modes of prace Counsel for defendants, although aware tice" when accomplises "turned State's eviof the Waddell and Jarrette decisions, as dence," see United States v. Ford, 12 U.S. well as the subsequent ones based on them, 594, 25 L.Dd. 256 (1875); 1 Wharton's Crimhave understandably felt constrained to re- inal Law and Procedure § 165 (1957), 22 peat the constitutional challenge to the C.J.S. Criminel Law § 46(1) (1963); 8 R.C.L., Criminal Law § 161 (1915), Notes:

A.(N.S.) 439 et seq. (1910). / In many states the prosessting attorney has no authority without the court's consent, to make a binding agreement with one charged with a crime that if he will testify against others, he himself shall be exempt from criminal liability or be allowed to plead guilty to a lesser offense. "In states in which a prosecuting attorney may enter

a nolle prosequi without the consent of the court, he may grant a witness immunity from prosecution by contract without approval of the court." 21 Am.Jur.2d, Criminal Law § 153, see also §§ 514-518 (1965); 24 L.R.A.(N.S.) 442-443 (1910); 18 Am. & Eng.Ann Cas. 748-749 (1911); annot, 85 A.L.R. 1177 (1933). The courts treat such promises as pledges of the public faith and, when made by the public presecutor, the court will see that the public faith which has been pledged by him is kept. Camren v. State, 32 Tex Crim. 180, 22 S.W. 682, 49 Am.St.R. 763 (1886), see State v. Hingle, 242 La. 844, 109 So 2d 205 (1902); State v. Ward, 112 W.Va. 552, 165 S.E. 893, 85 A.L.B. 1175 (1932), State v. Graham, 12 Vroom 15, 32 Am.Rep. 174 (N.J.1879); United States v. Lee, Case No. 15,588, 26 2 F.2d 262 (D.Mont.1934); United States v. BroLew, 65 P.Sepp. 100 (S.D.18 1945); annot., 43 A.L.R.34 281 et seg. (1972).

[4] In North Carolina '[t]he Solicitor is a constitution I officer authorized and empowered to represent the State." His aunouncement prior to the trial that the State would not seek a vesditt of golby of firstdegree number but would ask for a verdict of second-degrees marder or manshing hier is tantament to the age a mole presequior en acquittal on the charge of first-degree murder. State v. Miller, 272 N.C. 213, 245, 158 S.E.24 47, 49 (1867). State v. Bogers, 273 N.C. 330, 150 S.H.L. Seo (1968).

81 N.C. 609, 605 (18 to), the shortest and

18 Am. & Eng Ann.Cas. 747 (1911); 24 L.R. right vested in him "when, in his judgment, the case calls for it, to enter a nolle prosequi and allow the prisoner's discharge, which practically accomplishes the same ends as [a] pardon." The solicitor had full authority to make the agreement which he made with Tucker and Carroll, and we hold that it violated neither the Fourteenth Amendment rights of defendants Waxton and Woodson nor their rights under N.C. Const., art. 1 §§ 19, 27.

> As Mr. Justice White said in delivering the opinion of the Court in Brady v. United States, 397 U.S. 742, 90 S.Ct. 1463, 25 L.Ed.2d 747 (1970), "[W]e cannot hold that it is unconstitutional for the State to extend a benefit to a defendant who in turn extends a substantial benefit to the State ." Id. at 753, 90 S.Ct. at 1471, 25 L.Ed.2d at 759. In Lisenba v. California, 314 U.S. 219, 227, 62 S.Ct. 230, 285, 86 L.Ed. 165, 175 (1941), Mr. Justice Roberts noted that "the practice of taking into consideration, in sentencing an accomplice, his aid to the state in turning state's evidence can be no denial of due process to a convicted confederate."

In Newman v. United States, 127 U.S. F.Cos. 910 (1846), United States v. Woody, App.D.C. 263, 282 F.2d 479 (1967) the sole question presented was whether it was a denial of the appellant's constitutional rights for the United States Attorney to accept a guilty plea tendered by appellant's co-defendant for a leser offen e under the indictment, while refusing to accept the same plea from the appellant. Both were indicted for house less hing and justly haveny. The co-defends at was allowed to plead guilty to the misdemeanors of petty farceny and attempted housebreaking; the appellant was tried and convicted of the critics charged. He contended that the United States Attorney's conduct had denied him due process and equal protection in that both "were equally guilty . . . and to 15.61 As pointed out in State v. Lyon, permit one party an avenue of escape with relatively minor punishment while refusing best made of scarrying out a promove of the same procedure to Appellant volates immunity is for the solution to exercise the the standard of farmess demanded by the

law by the Constitution.

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In rejecting the appellant's contentions Burger, Circuit Judge (now Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court), pointed out that the United States Attorney is charged with the faithful execution of the laws and prosecution of offenses against the United States, and, as such, he must have broad discretion. "To say that the United States Attorney must literally treat every offense and every offender alike is to delegate him an impossible task; of course, this concept would negate discretion. Myriad factors can enter into the proscentor's decision. Two persons may have committed what is precisely the same legal offense but the prosecutor is not compelled by law, duty or tradition to treat them the same as to charges. On the contrary, he is expected to exercise discretion and common sense to the end that if, for example, one is a young first offender and the other older, with a criminal record, or one played a lesser and the other a dominant role, one the instigator and the other a fellower, the presecutor can and should take such factors into f account; no court has any jurisdiction to inquire into or review his decision." Id. at 481-482

"Mere selectivity in presecution creates no constitutional problems. Oyler v. Roles, 368 U.S. 448, 476, 82 S.Ct. 501, 7 L.Ed.24 446 (1963). To involve the defense [denial of equal protection under the Pourteenth Amendment] one must prove that the soletion was deliberately based on an unjustific able stordard, such as race, religion, or other er arbitrary classification." United States v. Steele, 464 F.24 D to, 1104 (2th Cir. 1972). See Conducat, The Right to Ken incrimusatory Deferement of State Petal Laws, 61 Col.L.Per. 1108, 1115-1120 (1931).

In this case we perceive no possible conplanned and directed the robbery and that problemine standard,

Id. at he fired the shots which killed Mrs. Butler and wounded Mr. Stancil is overwhelming No extenuating circumstances gave the solicitor any incentive to accept the plea he tendered at the close of the State's cyl-

> Woodson at no time tendered to the State a plea of any kind. Throughout the trial Le contended that he was innocent became he had acted under duress from Waxton. It is not surprising that the jury rejected this defense in view of his testimony that on the night of the robbery he knew what he was doing: that he got into the car of his own free will after having known all day that "there was going to be a robbery"; that he had not seen Waxton during the day and "he could have gone anywhere if he had desired to do so"; that his staying in the car with the rifle outside the E Z St., and Carroll's driving the car "was just as much a part of the plan as was Waxton's and Tucker's going into the store." See 21 Ar. Jur.2d, Criminal Law § 100 (1965).

We note, however, the learned and pairetaking trial judge fully instructed the jury on coercion as an excuse for crime and pove Woodson the full benefit of his contention that he went with the group to rob the E ? Shop under compelsion from Waxten The jury were in trucks, that if Wooden we di along and did what he did only become of a wall-founded four of inemaliate death as great healty house at the hards of Wester. he would not be pully of any with a

Finally, we note that Waston and We be son were adult, a ped 31 and 25 mg. to ly. Tacker and Cornell were at It in the : teens, aged It and It to postnely. Care was obviously impressed by Vincton, a older bysther was, after as above of a year, had returned from New Jer , and stitutional informity in the solution's selec- a knowledge of harate and much other to tion, no above of discretion, and no arbi- formation he was no doubt willing to a trary desdification. All foor of the defend- part to a younger breaker villing to beants are black and their religious views are. We find no evidence that the solution undisclosed. The evalence that Waxton selection was deliberately based on an ev-

We have considered the entire record in this ease, as well as each defendant's assignments of error, with care commensarate with the gravity of the centences from which defendants appeal, and in the trial below we find

No Error.

EXUM, Justice (concurring):

This is the first case, since my joining the Court, in which we have considered the application of the death sentence pursuant to Chapter 1201, 1972 Section Laws, ratified April 8, 1971, codified as C.S. § 14-17, which makes first degree number committed after April 8, 1974, punishable by deetle All capital cares heretofore considered in which I have participated involved crimes committed Is fere April 8, 1974. Death seatences is these cases have been affirmed by a majority of the Court on the authority of State v. Walled, 2-2 N (-431, 191 S.L.3d) 18 (1975) I have discented in each of the-a can fred, that portion of the continue sustain a the death sentence not on the ground that such a serious, was victive of the Cuel and Unusual Punishment Clauses of the Constitutions of the United States and Moral Carolina, but on the ground that only the Legislative and not the Cours had authority to reinstate the death per by is North Carolina after our State's stated by schools for imposing it had been in talent' by Para, a. a. Greegie, 405 U.S. 17 , 11 S.C. 2723, 2 Libized 32 296 N.C. 400, 212 P.H. M. 117 (1915).

By casele of Chapter 1991, 1975 Fee. slea law, effective at April 1, 1971, the North Continu General Assembly did reinfirst do no sender and the receiversated trime of fact derive rope. Consequently, for me, the continue of the resultintiationally of imposing a partern of death for enginetion of for the new much rate statistical by her better executional in for the first time squirely presented.

It is not an easy question for I am personally opposed to capital punishment. Maintaining it, even for murder, is not in my view wise public policy. I do not by lieve, however, that its infliction upon one convicted of premeditated murder or murder committed in the course of another felony which itself is inherently dangerous to human life, such as we have here, contravenes the Constitution of the United States or North Carolina.

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My belief that capital punishment is unwise as a matter of public policy is based primarily on the proposition that government, if it functions properly, should seek to set an example, to teach the people whom it serves. People ought be able to look to the basic underlying policies of government and see there what is inhurently right and proper. I agree with Mr. Justice Brandels who once wrote: "Our Government is the potent, the omnipresent tencher. For no 'er for ill, it teaches the whole people by its example." Obustead v. United States, 277 U.S. 438, 485, 48 S.Ct. 561, 575, 72 L.Ed. 943, 959 (1927). The cold, calculated, protectionace taking of human hie is an act the brotal , and violence of which is not diminished become it is specisored by the state. We rightly abhor the kind of human being who commits such an act. That the state should respond in kind is, to me, equally abberrent. The argument that we same low, exalt human life by executing the wroteles who produced and a petall of its own weight. Calculated Himogoby individual vallegt doubt cheap. The God Facey de crain Cat v. Villactes God gives right to live. So, however, do calculated exerctions at the hands of the state. Execution are boll example; they teach, not respect for life, but that some fives are not worth nonintaining. It is a state the court panelty for the crime of short step in the minds of many from execution at the hand of the state to smode and other violence at the hand of people As Mr. Justice Stewart wrote in his concurring opinion in Furman, 40: U.S. at 300, 92 S.Ct. at 2760, 23 L.L. 12d at 388;

> "The penalty of death differs from all other form of criminal punishment, not

in degree but in kind. It is unique in its rejection of rehabilitation of the convict as a basic purpose of criminal justice. And it is unique, finally, in its absolute renunciation of all that is embodied in our concept of hamnity." (Emphasis supplied.)

Neither do I believe that capital punishment, even when regularly utilized, deters generally the commission of capital crimes. Practically all of the statistical data available on the subject has been collected and much of it thoroughly analyzed in Bowers, Executions in America (D. C. Heath and Company, 1974) (hereinafter, Bowers). The author concludes:

. "To assess the deterrent effects of capital punishment, investigators have conducted studies of various descriptions-examining and comparing nations and jurisdictions within nations for the effects of abolition and other changes in the status of the death penalty, for the effects of fluctuations in and the cessation of executions, and for the impact of the death sentence and the execution in specific cases. Not one of these studies has turned up evidence that the death penalty is superior as a deterrent to punishments used as alternatives. The data presented in Chapters 5 and 6 specifically restrict claims for the deterrent power of the death penalty by showing that the experimental abolition of capital punishment, the nationwide moratorium on exeeutions, and the move from mandatory to discretionary capital punishment, did not encourage or contribute to a rise in criminal homicide.

"The failure of the death penalty to display any unique deterrent effect has been attributed to the fact that it had come to be imposed almost exclusively for irrational actions and that even for such conduct it was unlikely to be imposed. Murder and rape are typically committed in rage, drunkenness, and/or stupefying passion. The offender acts in madness or out of hatred, because of insult or betrayal, without expecting to be caught, or not earing if he is. While the objective likelihood of being put to death for his crime in quite low, it is doubtful that the capital offender is subjectively aware of his chances of escaping execution. Thus, even under the mandatory death penalty, which presumably contributes to the impression that offenders are certain to be executed if eaught, potential offenders appear equally oblivious to such impending doom." Id. at 193-94.

Bowers has carefully compared homicide rates for an equal period of time before and after 1967 (the year of the last execution in the United States) in death penalty and contiguous abolition states. These comparisons make a convincing case that neither utilization of capital punishment mandatorily or in a discretionary way nor its de jure nor de facto abolition has had any appreciable effect on the rate of commission of capital crimes. See also Furman v. Georgia, supra at 348-54, 92 S.Ct. 2726, 33 LEd.2d at 412-415 (Mr. Justice Marshall concurring).

It must be conceded that the raw data available has shortcomings which reduce its probative value. "One is that there are no accurate figures for capital murders; there are only figures on homicides and they, of course, include non-capital killings." Id. at 349-50, 92 S.Ct. at 2783, 33 L.Ed.2d at 412-13 (Mr. Justice Marshall concurring). The main shortcoming of the statistical arguments is:

"'Capital punishment has obviously failed as a deterrent when a murder is committed. We can number its failures. But we cannot number its successes. No one can ever know how many people have refrained from murder because of the fear of being hanged.' This is the nub of the problem" Id. at 317, 92 S.Ct. at 2781, 33 L.Ed.2d at 411 (Mr. Justice Marshall concurring).

Deterrence, however, is not the only purpose of sanctions against criminal activity. Retribution has long been recognized by tice Burger pointed out in his dissent in Furman, "The Court has consistently assumed that retribution is a legitimate dimension of the punishment of crimes." 408 U.S. at 304, 92 S.Ct. at 2806, 33 L.Ed.2d at 439. 1, personally, do not believe that retribution has any legitimate place in our criminal justice system. My view is that the goals of sanctions against criminal conduct should be general deterrence to others, special deterrence to the offender himself, restitution to the victim, and rehabilitation of the offender. Punishment in the sense of retribution, vengeance, or retaliation is always in the long run self-defeating.

"But the punitive attitude persists. And just so long as the spirit of vengeance has the slightest vestige of respectability, so long as it pervades the public mind and infuses its evil upon the statute books of the law, we will make no headway toward the control of crime. We cannot assess the most appropriate and effective penalty so long as we seek to inflict retaljatory pain." Menninger, The Crime of Punishment 218 (The Viking Press 1968).

Many disagree. "[R]esponsible legal thinkers of widely varying persuasions have debated the sociological and philosophical aspeets of the retribution question for generations, neither side being able to convince the other." Furman v. Georgia, supra at 394-95, 92 S.Ct. at 2306, 33 L.I.d.2d at 439 (Chief Justice Burger dissenting). While . the extent of retribution available is certainly limited by the Cruel and Unusual Punishment Clauses in our state and federal constitutions, in the case now under consideration exaction of the death penalty in a purely retributive sense, while offensive to me personally, does not contravene these constitutional prohibitions.

The point is that as a judge I cannot substitute my personal will for that of the Legislature merely because I disagree with

many as another valid purpose. Chief Jus- its chosen policy. The utility of capital gree murder in our scheme of criminal justice is one upon which reasonable, learned, humane, and conscientious persons differ. These differences are nowhere better documented than in the nine separate opinions filed by the Chief Justice and Associate Justices of the United States Supreme Court in Furman and the various authorities relied on in each of the opinions. Whether the effects of capital punishment in a murder case are, indeed, brutalizing or salutary, whether the data available tending to negate the deterrent effect of capital punishment really outweighs arguments in its favor resting on "logical hypotheses devoid of evidentiary support, but persuasive nonetheless," Furman v. Georgia, supra at 347, 92 S.Ct. at 2781, 33 L.Ed.2d at 411 (Mr. Justice Marshall concurring), and whether in a murder case it should be permitted for purposes of pure retribution are questions upon which honest persons conscientiously and deeply differ. This aspect of the question strongly militates in favor of judicial deference to the legislative will in the case now before us.

I fervently hope that someday North Carolina will join her ten sister states who have legislatively totally abolished capital punishment and some forty-five civilized countries throughout the world who likewise have abolished it (except, in some instances, in time of martial law and "for certain extraordinary civil offenses"). Bowers at 6, The Constitutions of the United States and North Carolina in my view do not require her to do so in cases such as this



Pp. 26-140, Brief for petitioner, Fowler v. North Carolina, No. 73-7031.

intractable judgment is to be made in numerous covert ways which conceal while increasing the irregularity, irrationality, and irresponsibility of the life-or-death decisions. (See Part II, pp. 26-101 infra.) Moreover, the historical lesson learned through decades of overtly discretionary capital sentencing - that the death penalty is no longer "widely accepted,"32 but is instead resoundingly repudiated by the institutions of criminal justice that have actually borne the terrible responsibility for choosing between life and death as the disposition for even the most heinous of offenders (see Part III, pp. 102-140 infra) - is to be ignored, as though it never happened. With all respect, this result is heedless of Furman, heedless of reality and history, and forbidden by the Eighth and Fourteenth Amendments.

II.

THE ARBITRARY INFLICTION OF DEATH

Although the prevailing Furman opinions differ somewhat in regard to the questions left unanswered by the square holding of that case, each opinion condemns at least any system of capital punishment in which some persons are chosen to live and others identically situated are consigned to die by irregular and erratic selective processes.33 Furman thus accords contemporary recognition to a central historic concern of the

33 The concurring opinions of Mr. Justice Brennan (408 U.S. at 257-306) and Mr. Justice Marshall (408 U.S. at 314-373) shared the view that the death penalty is unconstitutional per se regardless of the presence or absence of selectivity in the procedural system through which it is administered.

Mr. Justice Douglas did not reach the question "[w] hether a mandatory death penalty would ... be constitutional" if it were in fact applied wholly non-selectively, 408 U.S. at 257, but held the death sentences under review in Furman and companion cases incompatible "with the idea of equal protection of the laws that is implicit in the ban on 'cruel and unusual' punishments," ibid., because they were "imposed pursuant to a procedure that gives room for the play of ... prejudices," 408 U.S. at 242, and allows the application of capital punishment "selectively to minorities whose numbers are few, who are outcasts of society, and who are unpopular, but whom society is willing to see suffer though it would not countenance general application of the same penalty across the board," 408 U.S. at 245.

Mr. Justice Stewart found it "unnecessary to reach the ultimate question" whether "the infliction of the death penalty is constitutionally impermissible in all circumstances," 408 U.S. at 306, since he found that the death sentences under review were returned "un are legal systems that permit this unique penalty to be ... waitonly and ... freakishly imposed," 408 U.S. at 310, and therefore violated the Eighth and Fourteenth Amendments. "[O]f all of the people convicted of rapes and murders ..., many just as reprehensible as these, the petitioners are among a capriciously selected random handful upon whom the sentence of death has in fact been imposed." 408 U.S. at 309-310 (footnote ommitted).

Mr. Justice White declined to consider the question whether "the death penalty is unconstitutional per se," 408 U.S. at 311, and held only that capital punishment was unconstitutional when it "is exacted with great infrequency even for the most atrocious crimes and ... [when] there is no meaningful basis for distinguishing the few cases in which it is imposed from the 27 many cases in which it is not." 408 U.S. at 313.

³² Trop v. Dulles, 356 U.S. 86, 99 (1958) (plurality opinion of Chief Justice Warren).

Eighth Amendment: "that government by the people, instituted by the Constitution, ... not imitate the conduct of arbitrary monarchs." Weems v. United States, 217 U.S. 349, 376 (1910).

As this Court has recognized,³⁴ the Cruel and Unusual Punishments Clause of the Eighth Amendment is derived from the almost identically worded Tenth Clause of the English Bill of Rights of 1689.³⁵ The preamble to the Bill of Rights declared that James II had endeavored to "subvert" the "laws and liberties of this kingdom" by arbitrarily "assuming and exercising a power of dispensing with and suspending of laws and the execution of laws, without consent of parlia-

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ment."36 The first two Clauses accordingly declared such conduct on the part of the King and the royal

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³⁴ In re Kemmler, 136 U.S. 436, 446 (1890).

³⁵ Modern historical scholarship lends support to this conclusion. See SCHWARTZ, THE BILL OF RIGHTS: A DOCU-MENTARY HISTORY 41 (1971). The "Declaration of Rights," which William and Mary signed on February 13, 1689, before their coronation, was reenacted with minor additions as a statute (the "Bill of Rights") by Parliament later that year. 1 W. & M., sess. 2, ch. 2 (1689), VI STAT. OF THE REALM 142-145. See also 5 PARL. HIST. ENG. 483-490 (1688-1704) (Cobbett ed. 1809); BROWNING, ENGLISH HISTORIC DOCUMENTS 1660-1714 122-128 (1953); BAXTER, BASIC DOCUMENTS OF ENGLISH HISTORY 159 (1968). Clause 10 provides: "That excessive bail ought not to be required, nor excessive fines imposed; nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted." 5 PARL. HIST. ENG. 485 (1688-1704) (Cobbett ed. 1809). The Eighth Amendment provides: "Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted."

³⁶Of particular concern to Parliament was James II's claim that the royal prerogative authorized him to ignore the statutes prescribing religious qualifications for the holding of public office, 4 THOMSON, A CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND, 1642-1801 87, 89 (1938), and to imprison subjects when no statute or common law principle authorized such a punishment, 2 MACAULAY, THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF JAMES II 515 (1850). This royal claim was facilitated by the 1686 decision of the King's Bench in Godden v. Hales, 2 Show. K.B. 475, 89 Eng. Rep. 1050, 11 Howell St. Tr. 1197 (Trinity Term, 2 Jac. 2) (1686), a collusive action arranged by James II before handpicked judges to secure judicial approval of the royal power arbitrarily to disregard the enactments of Parliament. KENYON, THE STUART CONSTITU-TION, 1603-1688 420-426 (1966). The Court ruled: "That the laws of England are the King's laws. That therefore it is an inseparable prerogative in the Kings of England to dispense with penal laws in particular cases and upon particular reasons, That of those reasons and those necessities the King himself is the sole judge." 11 Howell St. Tr. at 1199. This decision confirmed the Parliamentary belief "that the Crown must be limited, controlled, and [made] inferior to the laws of the land," HUGHES & FRIES, CROWN AND PARLIAMENT IN TUDOR-STUART ENGLAND 291 (1959); the realization by both Whigs and Tories "of the inadequacy of the laws of Parliament to withstand the attacks of the King was the beginning of their rejection of James and the real commencement of the revolution of 1688." Id. at 294.

judges illegal,³⁷ and Clause 10 prohibited the infliction of "cruel and unusual punishments." The legislative history of this provision makes clear that it was intended to prohibit the infliction of harsh punishments that were arbitrarily imposed.³⁸

While the Bill of Rights was pending in Parliament, an Anglican clergyman, Titus Oates, appealed his 1685 perjury conviction to the House of Lords. Oates had been convicted in the King's Bench of giving false testimony during the "Popish Plot" trials of 1678-1679, and had been sentenced to be defrocked, to serve a term of life imprisonment, to pay a large fine, to be twice severely whipped, and to be pilloried four times a year. This punishment was harsh, discriminatory and arbitrary in the extreme — a manifest attempt to avenge Oates' anti-Catholic intrigues against James II (who had then been Duke of York) by the imposition of punishments that were both unauthorized by statute and outside the jurisdiction of the sentencing court.

³⁷ These two Clauses flatly overruled Godden v. Hales, supra note 36, declaring:

[&]quot;1. That the pretended power of suspending of laws, or the execution of laws, by regal authority, without consent of parliament, is illegal. 2. That the pretended power of dispensing with laws, or the execution of laws, by regal authority, as it hath been assumed and exercised of late, is illegal."

⁵ PARL. HIST. ENG. 485 (1688-1704) (Cobbett ed. 1809). A significant new phrase was also added to the Coronation Oath: henceforth, the ascending monarch was to swear to govern according to "the statutes in Parliament agreed upon, and the laws and customs of the same." WILLIAMS, THE EIGHT-EENTH-CENTURY CONSTITUTION, 1688-1815: DOCU-MENTS AND COMMENTARY 3, 37 (1960). "The oath in its previous form had pledged the King to 'grant and keep' the laws and customs 'granted' by his predecessor. If the laws were merely the King's grants, then it might be contended that he could revoke them. Henceforth, it was plain that he was bound by the laws." 4 THOMSON, A CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND, 1642-1801 176-177 (1938).

³⁸ Granucci, "Nor Cruel and Unusual Punishments Inflicted:"
The Original Meaning, 57 CALIF. L. REV. 839, 859 (1969);
Wheeler, Toward a Theory of Limited Punishment: An
Examination of the Eighth Amendment, 24 STAN. L. REV. 838,
844 (1972).

³⁹For discussions of this phase of the *Oates* case, see CLARK, THE LATER STUARTS, 1660-1714 88-92 (1934); BROWNING, ENGLISH HISTORICAL DOCUMENTS, 1660-1714 12-15 (1953); 4 THOMSON, A CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND, 1642-1801 61-65 (1938); LANDON, THE TRI-UMPH OF THE LAWYERS: THEIR ROLE IN ENGLISH POLITICS, 1678-1689 181-183 (1969).

⁴⁰The lengthy flogging prescribed for Oates was apparently intended to be fatal: "the court, having no power to hang him, plainly intended that he should be flogged to death." 4 THOMSON, A CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND 1642-1801 142 (1938). This was the contemporary understanding of the court's intent. In 1689, the House of Commons resolved "[t] hat it was illegal, cruel, and of dangerous example that a freeman [Oates] should be whipped in such a barbarous manner, as, in all probability, would determine in death." 5 PARL. HIST. ENG. 387 (1688-1704) (Cobbett ed. 1809).

⁴¹Imprisonment for life could not at that time be imposed for perjury (a misdemeanor), 4 THOMSON, A CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND, 1660-1801 142 (1938); and "[o] nly a spiritual court could degrade a priest," *ibid.* According to Macaulay, "that the sentence [imposed on Oates] was illegal was a proposition that admitted of no dispute." 3 MACAULAY, THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF JAMES II 308 (1850).

Oates' conviction and sentence were affirmed in the House of Lords, with thirteen of the Members dissenting strongly on the grounds that these punishments were "cruel, barbarous, and illegal" and "contrary to the Declaration [of Rights] of the 12th of Feb. last... whereby it doth appear, that excessive Bail ought not to be required, nor excessive Fines imposed, nor cruel nor unusual punishments inflicted." Oates

"1. 'For that the King's-bench, being a temporal court, made it part of the Judgment, That Titus Oates, being a clerk, should, for his perjuries, be divested of his canonical and priestly habit, and to continue divested all his life: which is a matter wholly out of their power, belonging to the ecclesiastical courts only. 2. For that the said Judgments are barbarous, inhuman, and unchristian. And there is no precedents [sic] to warrant the punishments of whipping, and committing to prison for life, for the crime of perjury; which yet were but part of the punishments inflicted upon him ... 4. For that this will be an encouragement, and an allowance, for giving the like cruel, barbarous, and illegal Judgments hereafter, unless this Judgment be reversed. 5. Because sir John Holt, sir Henry Pollexfen, the two Chief Justices, and sir Robert Atkins chief baron, with six Judges more (being all that were then present), for these and many other Reasons, did, before us, solemnly deliver their Opinions; and unanimously declare, That the said Judgments were contrary to law, and ancient practice; and therefore erroneous, and ought to be reversed. 6. Because it was contrary to the Declaration of the 12th of Feb. last, which was ordered by the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, then assembled; and by their Declaration ingrossed in parchment, and inrolled among the Records of parliament, and recorded in Chancery; whereby it doth appear, that excessive Bail ought not to be required, nor excessive Fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted."

then sought relief in the House of Commons, where his cause was strongly taken up by militant Protestants, who secured passage of a resolution "That Bills be brought in to reverse the Judgments against Mr. Oates... as cruel and illegal." Sir William Williams declared during the debate on this bill: "let any man give us a precedent to square with that Judgment. It makes the Judges arbitrary, and hereafter the Judges may be most injurious in punishing." When a deadlock occurred with the House of Lords over a collateral matter, one of the floor managers from the Lords (whose bill gave Oates more limited relief than the Commons bill) admitted that the Oates judgment was illegal but declared that Oates deserved punishment for his libels. A Member of Commons responded:

"'Be it so. This bill gives him no indemnity. We are quite willing that, if he is guilty, he shall be punished. But for him, and for all Englishmen, we demand that punishments shall be regulated by

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⁴²5 PARL. HIST. ENG. 291-292 (1688-1704) (Cobbett ed. 1809). This dissent declared:

⁴³⁵ PARL. HIST. ENG. 296 (1688-1704)(Cobbett ed. 1809).

⁴⁴ Id. at 294.

⁴⁵The Commons had also declared that the perjury judgements against Oates were "corrupt." 5 PARL. HIST. ENG. 392 (1688-1704) (Cobbett ed. 1809), and it was this allegation that the Lords would not agree to. *Id.* at 394.

law, and not by the arbitrary discretion of any tribunal." "46

By the time of the framing of the American Bill of Rights, eight States had adopted prohibitions of "cruel and unusual punishments" that were modeled upon

463 MACAULAY, THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF JAMES II 310 (1850). The floor managers of the Commons bill reported back to the House of Commons on their difficulties in securing an acceptable compromise bill from the House of Lords:

"the commons had hoped, that, after the Declaration [of Rights] presented to their majesties upon their accepting the crown (wherein their lordships had joined with the commons in complaining of the cruel and illegal punishments of the last reign; and in asserting it to be the ancient right of the people of England, that they should not be subjected to cruel and unusual punishments; and that no judgments to the prejudice of the people in that kind ought in any-wise to be drawn into consequence, or example); and after this Declaration had been so lately renewed in that part of the Bill of Rights which the lords had agreed to; they should not have seen Judgments of this nature affirmed, and been put under a necessity of sending up a Bill for reversing them; since those Declarations will not only be useless, but of pernicious consequence to the people, if, so soon after, such Judgments as these stand affirmed, and be not taken to be cruel and illegal within the meaning of those Declarations-That the commons had a particular regard to these Judgments, amongst others, when that Declaration was first made; and must insist upon it, that they are erroneous, cruel, illegal, and of ill example to future ages. . . . That it was surely of ill example for a temporal court to give judgment, 'That a clerk be divested of his canonical habits; and continue so divested during his life.' That it was of ill example, and illegal, that a Judgment of perpetual imprisonment should be given in a case, where there is no express law to warrant it."

5 PARL. HIST. ENG. 386-387 (1688-1704) (Cobbett ed. 1809). Oates was pardoned by King William before the differences between Commons and Lords were finally resolved. *Id.* at 399.

Clause 10 of the English Bill of Rights,⁴⁷ and the federal government had inserted a similar provision into the Northwest Ordinance of 1787.⁴⁸ Because early American legal history is so obscure, it is not possible to know exactly what the draftsmen of these provisions intended.⁴⁹ However, whatever else such clauses were

⁴⁷Virginia Constitution of 1776, Declaration of Rights, §9 (7 THORPE, FEDERAL AND STATE CONSTITUTIONS 3813 (1909); (see also RUTLAND, THE BIRTH OF THE BILL OF RIGHTS OF 1791 35-36, 232 (1955)); Delaware Declaration of Rights of 1776, §16 (1 Del. Code Ann. §83 (1953)); North Carolina Constitution of 1776, § 10 (5 THORPE, supra, at 2788); Maryland Constitution of 1776, § 22 (3 THORPE, supra, at 1688); Massachusetts Constitution of 1780, art. 26 (3 THORPE, supra. at 1892); Ne Hampshire Constitution of 1784, §33 (4 THORPE, supra, at 2457); Pennsylvania Constitution of 1790, art. 9, §13 ("... nor cruel punishments inflicted") (5 THORPE, supra, at 3101); South Carolina Constitution of 1790, art. 9, §4 (" . . . nor cruel punishments inflicted") (6 THORPE, supra, at 3264). Cf. Vermont Constitution of 1777, ch. 2, § 35 (6 THORPE, supra, at 3747): "To deter more effectually from the commission of crimes, by continued visible punishment of long duration, and to make sanguinary punishments less necessary; houses ought to be provided for punishing, by hard labor, those who shall be convicted of crimes . . . "

⁴⁸Ordinance of 1787, The Northwest Territorial Government, art. II (Confederation Congress, July 13, 1787): "All fines shall be moderate; and no cruel or unusual punishments shall be inflicted." See 1 U.S.C. xxxvii-xxxviii (1964).

⁴⁹"Legal development is probably the least known aspect of American colonial history. Judicial opinions were not recorded in the colonies, no year books were issued, and the printed materials for legal and judicial history have been so scanty as to preclude the more cautious historians from dealing with this important side of colonial life." MORISON (ed.), RECORDS OF THE SUFFOLK COUNTY COURT, 1671-1680 unpaginated preface (1933).

intended to prohibit, it is unlikely that they were not intended to guard against the arbitrary infliction of harsh punishments. For there is evidence that the colonists were concerned with this issue. In 1635, Governor John Winthrop described the attempts of the Massachusetts Bay Colonists to draft a comprehensive criminal code in order to limit the discretion of the magistrates: "The deputies having conceived great danger to our state in regard that our magistrates, for want of positive laws, in many cases, might proceed according to their discretions, it was agreed, that some men should be appointed to frame a body of grounds of laws, in resemblance to a Magna Charta, which being allowed by some of the ministers and the general court, should be received for fundamental laws."50 The writings of Blackstone, whose influence on the development of colonial American law was enormous,51 had echoed the 1689 Parliamentary debates concerning the Oates case by stressing the fact that English law did not allow the arbitrary infliction of punishment:

"it is moreover one of the glories of our English law, that the nature, though not always the quality or degree, of punishment is ascertained for every offence; and that it is not left in the breast of any judge, nor even of a jury, to alter that judgment, which the law has beforehand ordained, for every subject alike, without respect of persons. For, if judgments were to be the private opinions of the judge, men would then be slave to their magistrates; and would live in society, without knowing exactly the conditions and obligations which it lays them under . . . [W] here an established penalty is annexed to crimes, the criminal may read their certain consequence in that law, which ought to be the unvaried rule, as it is the inflexible judge of his actions."52

Finally, the American statesmen who framed the state and federal prohibitions on cruel and unusual punishments in the late Eighteenth Century typically believed that their rebellion against Britain had been justified in order to preserve their inherited English civil rights and political freedoms: 53 "from a purely legal interpretation, the American Revolution itself, as the Americans saw it, was largely the result of England's disregard of the common-law rights of the Colonists." 54 It therefore appears unlikely that they would consciously have

⁹⁰ WHITMORE, COLONIAL LAWS OF MASSACHUSETTS 1630-1686 5 (1889).

The Original Meaning, 57 CALIF. L. REV. 839, 862 (1969). Edmund Burke announced to Parliament in 1775 that almost as many copies of Blackstone's Commentaries had been sold in the American colonies as in Great Britain. SUTHERLAND, THE LAW AT HARVARD 25 (1967).

⁵²⁴ BLACKSTONE, COMMENTARIES ON THE LAWS OF ENGLAND 371-372 (1st ed. 1769).

⁵³ See BAILYN, THE IDEOLOGICAL ORIGINS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION 1-54 (1967).

⁵⁴LEVY, ORIGINS OF THE FIFTH AMENDMENT 337 (1968).

rejected or limited any of their traditional liberties, 55 including the right against arbitrary infliction of harsh punishments. George Mason, the author of both the Virginia Declaration of Rights and the amendments proposed to Congress by the Virginia ratifying convention, 56 stressed the necessity of limiting all forms of American governmental authority by such guarantees of individual liberty:

"In the declaration of rights which that country [Great Britain] has established, the truth is, they

55The legislative history of adoption of the Eighth Amendment is sparse and not particularly illuminating as to the purposes of the Framers. See 2 ELLIOT'S DEBATES 111 (2d ed. 1863); 3 ELLIOT'S DEBATES 447-448, 451, 452 (2d ed. 1863); 1 ANNALS OF CONGRESS 754 (1st Cong., 1st Sess. 1789). There is evidence, however, that in certain ratifying conventions, opponents of the Constitution feared that, without a Bill of Rights, Congress would be free to devise whatever criminal punishments it wished and that tortures might be instituted. Patrick Henry, for example, declared to the Virginia Convention: "when we come to punishments, no latitude ought to be left, nor dependence put on the virtue of representatives [in Congress] Are you not, therefore, now calling on those gentlemen who are to compose Congress, to prescribe trials and define punishments without this control [a constitutional prohibition on "cruel and unusual punishments"]? You let them loose; you do more - you depart from the genius of your country." 3 ELLIOT'S DEBATES 447-448 (2d ed. 1863). There is thus some evidence that the Framers were concerned to limit the discretion of legislators to devise punishments, and there is no indication whatsoever in any of the debates that they would have approved an arbitrary freedom on the part of magistrates to impose criminal punishments.

56 See 1 ROWLAND, LIFE OF GEORGE MASON 234-250 (1892).

have gone no farther than to raise a barrier against the power of the Crown; the power of the legislature is left altogether indefinite....

But although...it may not be thought necessary to provide limits for the legislative power in that country, yet a different opinion prevails in the United States. The people of many states have thought it necessary to raise barriers against power in all forms and departments of Government...."

1 ANNALS OF CONGRESS 436 (1st Cong., 1st Sess. 1789).

The arbitrary infliction of death which this Court condemned in Furman and companion cases arose, of course, from various procedures⁵⁷ whereby juries (or judges) were given the option to sentence convicted capital offenders to life (or term) imprisonment or death.⁵⁸ But – particularly in the light of McGautha v. California, 402 U.S. 183 (1971) – it is impossible to read Furman as prohibiting only the explicit statutory annunciation of jury discretion to impose alternative sentences of imprisonment or capital punishment. Surely Furman and the Eighth Amendment forbid any arbitrarily selective imposition of the "unique penalty" of death,⁵⁹ whatever the source or mechanism of the arbitrariness. See Commonwealth v. A Juvenile, 1973

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⁵⁷For a description of some of these variations, see State v. Rhodes, _____ Mont. ____, 524 P.2d 1095, 1099 (1974).

⁵⁸ See McGautha v. California, 402 U.S. 183, 197-203 (1971).

⁵⁹ Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 310 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Stewart).

Mass. Adv. Sh. 1199, 300 N.E.2d 434 (1973).60 The particular method of selecting some men to die while others in like cases live with "no meaningful basis for distinguishing" among them61 cannot be thought constitutionally decisive. For the Federal Constitution is not ordinarily concerned with the forms of state procedure, but with their result. See, e.g., Chambers v. Mississippi, 410 U.S. 284, 302-303 (1973); Mempa v. Rhay, 389 U.S. 128, 135-137 (1967); Jackson v. Denno, 378 U.S. 368, 391 n.19 (1964), It "nullifies sophisticated as well as simple-minded modes" of producing unconstitutional consequences. Lane v. Wilson, 307 U.S. 268, 275 (1939). Federal constitutional guarantees cannot - as Justice Holmes wrote in another context - "be evaded by attempting a distinction" of form without a difference in substance. Davis v. Wechsler, 263 U.S. 22, 24 (1923).

60In Commonwalth v. A Juvenile, the Massachusetts Supreme Judicial Court held a "mandatory" death penalty statute unconstitutional under the Eighth Amendment where death was the "mandatory" punishment for a specified crime but discretionary mechanisms existed by which a trial court could avoid subjecting a particular defendant to that "mandatory" sentence. The case involved a juvenile who had been condemned under a statute which made death the "mandatory" punishment for rape-murder. The Court held that when a juvenile could be adjudicated either as an adult for rape-murder (in which case, the death sentence was mandatory, see Mass. Gen. Laws Ann. c. 265 §2) or as a juvenile (in which case no death sentence could be imposed), a death sentence imposed pursuant to the adult "mandatory" statute could not be affirmed, since Furman invalidated "discretionary imposition of the death sentence." 300 N.E.2d at 442 (emphasis in original).

61 Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 313 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice White).

To be sure, Waddell's annulment of the North Carolina "recommendation" statute ostensibly made death the exclusive punishment for first degree murder, rape, first degree burglary and arson. But the implementation of the death sentence for this broad range of offenses inevitably required the exercise of vast and uncontrolled selective discretion by district attorneys, trial judges, juries and the Governor in choosing which defendants would live and which would die in cases where the death penalty was potentially applicable after Waddell. Language requires that the several practices through which unrestrained and arbitrary discretion infects the administration of the death penalty under Waddell be described separately, as we shall do in the following subsections of this brief. But the practices plainly operate cumulatively to produce the kind of extreme uncertainty and unpredictability in the infliction of the death penalty that violates Furman's ban.

"There is...danger in treating any one stage [of the criminal justice process] as if it were a self-contained system rather than merely one decision in an ongoing process of interrelated decisions and consequences of decisions. An assumption, explicit or implied, that adjudication is in fact a quasi-automatic, nondiscretionary process, turning solely on matters of sufficient evidence, is a gross oversimplification..."

NEWMAN, CONVICTION: THE DETERMINATION OF GUILT OR INNOCENCE WITHOUT TRIAL 150 (1966).⁶² Thus as demonstrated by Professor Charles

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⁶²See also Rosett, Discretion, Severity and Legality in Criminal Justice, 46 SO. CALIF. L. REV. 12, 14-15 (1972).

Black in his recent trenchant analysis, 63 the result of 63BLACK, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT: THE INEVITABILITY OF CAPRICE AND MISTAKE (1974). Professor Black points out the numerous discretionary decisions made at every stage of the criminal justice process, with life and death consequences, and emphasizes:

"Regarding each of these choices, through all the range, one of two things, or perhaps both, may be true.

First, the choice made may be a mistaken one. The defendant may not have committed the act of which he is found guilty; the factors which ought properly to induce a prosecutor to accept a plea to a lesser offense may have been present, though he refused to do so; the defendant may have been 'insane' in the way the law requires for exculpation, though the jury found that he was not. And so on.

Secondly, there may either be no legal standards governing the making of the choice, or the standards verbally set up by the legal system for the making of the choice may be so vague, at least in part of their range, as to be only apparent standards, in truth furnishing no direction and leaving the actual choice quite arbitrary.

These two possibilities have an interesting (and, in the circumstances, tragic) relationship. The concept of mistake fades out as the standard grows more and more vague and unintelligible. There is no vagueness problem about the question 'Did Y hit Z on the head with a piece of pipe?' It is, for just that reason, easily possible to conceive of what it means to be 'mistaken' in answering this question; one is 'mistaken' if one answers it 'yes' when in fact Y did not hit Z with the pipe. It is even fairly clear what it means to be 'mistaken' in answering the question 'Did Y intend to kill Z?' Conscious intents are facts; the difference here really is that, for obvious reasons, mistake is more likely in the second case than in the first, for it is hard or impossible to be confident of coming down on the right side of a question about past psychological fact.

(continued)

numerous interrelated arbitrary processes in the administration of the death penalty in North Carolina is exactly the result condemned by Furman: death sentences which are "wantonly and... freakishly imposed." Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 310 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Stewart).

And this means not merely that a few men die for crimes no more atrocious than the crimes of many who are spared.⁶⁴ It means also that society's most extreme and irremediable punishment is likely to be practiced principally upon the outcast of society. Discrimination is inseparable from arbitrariness wherever social atti-

(footnote continued from proceeding page)

It is very different when one comes to the question, 'Was the action of which the defendant was found guilty performed in such a manner as to evidence an 'abandoned and malignant heart'?' (This phrase figures importantly in homicide law.) This question has the same grammatical form as a clearcut factual question; actually, through a considerable part of its range, it is not at all clear what it means. It sets up, in this range, not a standard but a pseudo-standard. One cannot, strictly speaking, be mistaken in answering it, at least within a considerable range, because to be mistaken is to be on the wrong side of a line, and there is no real line here. But that, in turn, means that the 'test' may often be no test at all, but merely an invitation to arbitrariness and passion, or even to the influence of dark unconscious factors.

'Mistake' and 'arbitrariness' therefore are reciprocally related."

Id. at 19-21 (emphasis in original).

⁶⁴See, e.g., LAWES, TWENTY THOUSAND YEARS IN SING SING 302, 307-310 (1932); DUFFY & HIRSHBERG, 88 MEN AND 2 WOMEN 254-255 (1962); De Ment, A Plea for the Condemned, 29 ALA. LAWYER 440, 440-441 n.2 (1968) (quoting Commissioner A. Frank Lee, of the Alabama Board of Corrections).

had not ceased to be the case in England three centuries after Titus Oates, 65 and it assuredly has not ceased in this country where "[t] hroughout our history differences in race and color have defined easily indentifiable groups which have at times required the aid of the courts in securing equal treatment under the laws." 66 "It is the poor, the illiterate, the underprivileged, the member of the minority group who is usually sacrificed by society's lack of concern." 67 To believe that this discrimination can be ended or controlled by the annulment of forthright jury discretion in capital sentencing in North Carolina blinks reality. For,

"discretion in the imposition of the death penalty will continue to be exercised in the prosecuting attorney's decision concerning the wording of the charge; the grand jury's decision concerning the

65PIERREPOINT, EXECUTIONER: PIERREPOINT 211 (1974):

"As long as reprieves for the death sentence existed, the reason for a reprieve was always fundamentally political: an execution here would incite too much sympathy for the victim and must be respited; an execution there will show that the Home Secretary means business. The public were allowed to blow like the wind for one popular reprieve of a favourite from Hampstead, and stay dead calm about an unattractive strangling in Ashton-under-Lyne precisely because the same basic inconsistency was being operated for the policy reprieves. The trouble with the death sentence has always been that nobody wanted it for everybody, but everybody differed about who should get off."

66 Hernandez v. Texas, 347 U.S. 475, 478 (1954).

67DiSalle, Trends in the Abolition of Capital Punishment, 1 U. TOLEDO L. REV. 1, 12-13 (1969). See also text and notes at notes 226-227, infra.

A. Prosecutorial Charging Discretion

As long ago as 1931, the Wickersham Commission reported that "[t]he Prosecutor [is] the real arbiter of what laws shall be enforced and against whom..."69

⁶⁸Browning, The New Death Penalty Statutes: Perpetuating a Costly Myth, 9 GONZAGA L. REV. 651, 661-662 (1974). See also Note, Mandatory Death: State v. Waddell, 4 N.C. CENT. L. J. 292, 298 (1974).

69 NATIONAL COMMISSION ON LAW OBSERVANCE AND ENFORCEMENT, REPORT ON PROSECUTION 19 (1931). See also DAVIS, DISCRETIONARY JUSTICE: A PRELIMINARY INQUIRY 188-214 (1971); authorities collected in note 74 infra. Cf. MOLEY, POLITICS AND CRIMINAL PROSECUTION vii (1929):

"... I have attempted to indicate the very great importance of the public prosecutor, a fact which is particularly American. The sheriff and the coroner, the grand jury, and finally the petit jury, products of a long historical evolution, have quite faded into insignificance. Likewise, both the examining magistrate and the trial judge in state courts, partially through their own lack of capacity, partly through legal limitations upon their powers, and largely because they have no means for knowing what they should know about the cases before them, perform no dominant role. In the midst of the decay and impotence of his official associates, the prosecutor rises to a definite mastery. To a considerable extent, he is police, prosecutor, magistrate, grand jury, petit jury, and judge in one."

In North Carolina, the prosecuting attorney (called the Solicitor) is charged with the duty to "prepare the trial dockets, [and] prosecute in the name of the State all criminal actions requiring prosecution in the superior and district courts of his district," N.C. Gen. Stat. § 7A-61 (1973 cum. supp.) (emphasis added). He is thereby given broad and essentially unreviewable authority to initiate and terminate prosecutions, ⁷⁰ State

sentence were vacated and a new trial ordered because of procedural error, illustrates the Solicitor's charging discretion under Waddell. In State v. Spicer, 285 N.C. 274, 204 S.E.2d 641 (1974), two persons were tried and convicted for murder during the course of an armed robbery. A third person, one Brailford, had helped to plan the robbery and was to share in its proceeds, but he was not charged in the murder although his testimony "permitted the jury to make a finding that he was an accomplice either in the robbery or the murder, or both." 204 S.E.2d at 647. The Court described Brailford's criminal role in the following fashion:

"the State's witness Brailford made the admission to the officers, 'I stated that I initiated the proposition concerning the hit of Christian Brothers Poultry. It was my idea.' He again stated he expected his cut. . . .

The evidence discloses that the witness Brailford originated the plan to rob his employer and explained the setup at the plant."

Ibid. The other two persons involved in the robbery, Spicer and one Isaac Monk, were convicted of first degree murder and sentenced to die. Spicer's conviction has been, as indicated, reversed on grounds permitting a retrial and a new death sentence, while Monk's conviction and death sentence are now pending on appeal in the North Carolina Supreme Court. State v. Monk, No. 13, New Hanover County, Fall Term, 1974.

v. Loesch, 237 N.C. 611, 75 S.E.2d 654, 656 (1953),⁷¹ including not only absolute discretion whether and what to charge,⁷² but also absolute discretion to bring an indicted defendant to trial upon lesser charges than those set forth in the indictment even if the evidence

The Court also ruled in State v. Loesch, that the Attorney General had no supervisory jurisdiction over the several Solicitors of the State, whose offices were established by Article III, Section 18 of the State Constitution. "[T] he duty of the Attorney General in so far as it extends to the solicitors of the State is purely advisory. The Attorney General has no constitutional authority to issue a directive to any other constitutional officer concerning his legal duties." 75 S.E.2d at 656.

72 The grand jury provides no significant check upon prosecutorial discretion since - except in a few extraordinary cases - it is heavily dominated by the prosecuting attorney. See, e.g., Goldstein, The State and the Accused: Balance of Advantage in Criminal Procedure, 69 YALE L. J. 1149, 1171 (1960), and authorities cited; Shannon, The Grand Jury, True Tribunal of the People or Administrative Agency of the Prosecutor? 2 NEW MEXICO L. REV. 141, 170 (1972); Note, Private Prosecution: A Remedy for District Attorneys' Unwarranted Inaction, 65 YALE L. J. 209, 212-213 (1955). Indeed, it is dubious that even the most conscientious grand juror, zealous to perform the grand jury's function of providing "'a fair method for instituting criminal proceedings against persons believed to have committed crimes," Costello v. United States, 350 U.S. 359, 362 (1956) (as quoted in Russell v. United States, 369 U.S. 749, 761 (1962)); accord: State v. Greer, 238 N.C. 325, 77 S.E.2d 917, 918-919 (1953), by inquiring "into the existence of possible criminal conduct and [returning] ... only well-founded indictments," Branzburg v. Hayes, 408 U.S. 665, 688 (1972); see also United States v. Calandra, 414 U.S. 338, 343 (1974), would suppose that this function called upon him to return an indictment upon charges greater than those sought by the prosecutor. And, as we shall shortly see under North Carolina law, if a grand jury did return such an indictment, the prosecutor could elect not to prosecute the offense charged, but only a lesser included offense. See text and note at note 73 infra.

shows that 2 greater crime has been committed, State v. Allen, 279 N.C. 115, 181 S.E.2d 453, 455 (1971);⁷³ and see State v. Roy, 233 N.C. 558, 64 S.E.2d 840, 841 (1951).⁷⁴

73 In State v. Allen, the Court affirmed a second degree burglary conviction in a case where the sole question presented on appeal was "'Did the trial court commit error by placing the defendant on trial for burglary in the second degree when all the evidence tended to show burglary in the first degree?" 181 S.E.2d at 455. The appellant was charged by indictment with first degree burglary, but at trial the solicitor announced he would seek no verdict greater than burglary in the second degree. The Supreme Court of North Carolina ruled that "the solicitor has the authority to elect not to try the defendant on the maximum degree of the offense charged but to put him on trial for the lesser degree thereof and lesser offenses included therein.... The effect of such election by the solicitor, announced as in this instance, is that of a verdict of not guilty upon the maximum degree of the offense charged, leaving for trial the lesser degree and the lesser included offenses." Ibid.

⁷⁴Cf. Note, Prosecutorial Discretion, 21 DePAUL L. REV. 485, 486 (1971-1972):

"[t] he limitations of a prosecutor's discretion are somewhat nebulous, and, in general, undefined. He has the authority by law to enforce certain laws by prosecuting offenders. Whom he chooses to prosecute, what he charges them with, whether he charges them at all, whether he later drops the charges or recommends a lower sentence at the time of trial are all within the prosecutor's exercise of discretion."

See also MILLER, PROSECUTION: THE DECISION TO CHARGE A SUSPECT WITH A CRIME 154-172, 293-350 (1969); 2 PLOSCOWE (ed), MANUAL FOR PROSECUTING ATTORNEYS 315-320 (1956); Baker & DeLong, The Prosecuting Attorney, 24 J. CRIM. L. & CRIM. 1025 (1934); Ferguson, Formulation of Enforcement Policy: An Anatomy of the Prosecutor's Discretion Prior to Accusation, 11 RUTGERS L. REV. 507 (1957); Mills, The Prosecutor: Charging and "Bargaining," 1966 U. ILL. L. F. 511; Note, Prosecutor's Discretion, 103 U. PA. L. REV. 1057 (1955); Note, Private Prosecution: A Remedy for District Attorneys' Unwarranted Inaction, 65 YALE L. J. 209, 209-215 (1955).

The North Carolina courts steadfastly refuse to review prosecutorial decisions. The leading case is State v. Casey, 159 N.C. 472, 74 S.E. 625 (1912), where an appellant, prosecuted and convicted for second degree murder by poisoning, argued that there was no evidence of this crime; that she was either guilty of first degree murder or not guilty of any offense. The North Carolina Supreme Court rejected this contention, commenting that the appellant had no "privilege to be tried for the capital felony" and concluding that "if the solicitor erred, it is an error in favor of the prisoner, of which she cannot justly complain." 74 S.E. at 625. And following Waddell, the court in State v. Jarrette. 284 N.C. 625, 202 S.E.2d 721, 742 (1974), flatly rejected the contention that the Eighth and the Fourteenth Amendments required any circumscription of the discretion of the Solicitor in capital cases:

"the Constitution of the United States does not require a state, in the enforcement of its criminal laws, so to hedge its prosecuting attorney about with 'guidelines' that he becomes a mere automaton, acting on the impulse of a computer and treating all persons accused of criminal conduct exactly alike."

The consequence of this unfettered prosecutorial discretion is, of course, that different Solicitors may utilize different standards in deciding whether to initiate capital or noncapital prosecutions. Without any guidance whatsoever, ⁷⁵ a Solicitor is free to make the

⁷⁵Cf. Wechsler, The Challenge of a Model Penal Code, 65 HARV. L. REV. 1097, 1102 (1952):

[&]quot;[a] society that holds, as we do, to belief in law cannot regard with unconcern the fact that prosecuting agencies can exercise so large an influence on dispositions that involve the penal sanction, without reference to any norms but those that they may create for themselves."

decision whether an indictment will be sought for first or second degree murder or manslaughter, for rape or assault with intent to rape, for first or second degree burglary. He may thus "without violating [his]...trust or any statutory policy...refuse to [seek]...the death penalty no matter what the circumstances of the crime." Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 314 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice White). This unconstrained discretion doubtless accounts in considerable part for the striking fact that there have been only three convictions of first degree burglary during a full year of Waddell's implementation in a State where there were about forty convictions annually for this crime in

the recent past, 78 and where 39,210 "burglaries and housebreakings" were reported in 1972. 79 The conclusion is inescapable that Solicitors have simply not regarded first degree burglary as a crime deserving death, and have not initiated first degree burglary

78 In 1955, the North Carolina Department of Justice ceased to report separate statistics for persons convicted of first degree burglary and of second degree burglary. In 1952, there were 47 convictions for first degree burglary in Superior Court (with 15 "Other dispositions") and 5 convictions in "inferior court" (with 64 "Other dispositions" there). 32 BIENNIAL REPORT OF THE ATTORNEY GENERAL OF THE STATE OF NORTH CAR-OLINA 1952-1954 515, 521 (1954). In 1953, there were 33 convictions for first degree burglary in Superior Court (with 10 "Other dispositions") and 4 convictions in "inferior court" (with 49 "Other dispositions" there). Ibid. In 1954, there were 35 convictions for first degree burglary in Superior Court (with 26 "Other dispositions") and 9 convictions in "inferior court" (with 61 "Other dispositions" there). 33 BIENNIAL REPORT OF THE ATTORNEY GENERAL OF THE STATE OF NORTH CAR-OLINA 1954-1956 377, 379 (1956). "Other dispositions" is nowhere defined; since the total of convictions and "Other dispositions" represents "cases disposed of in the Superior and inferior courts of the State," 32 BIENNIAL REPORT OF THE ATTORNEY GENERAL OF THE STATE OF NORTH CAR-OLINA 1952-1954 510 (1954), "Other dispositions" apparently includes acquittals and nol pros's.

BUREAU OF INVESTIGATION, CRIME IN THE UNITED STATES 1972 74 (Aug. 1973). The Uniform Crime Reports, of course, reflect reported crimes, not convictions; and the reported "burglaries and housebreakings" doubtless exceed the total number of statutory first degree burglaries which occurred in the State during 1972. Nevertheless, it cannot rationally be imagined that only three first degree burglars were apprehended in North Carolina during a twelve month period.

⁷⁶As we demonstrate at pp. 65-76 *infra*, the distinctions among these offenses as they may apply to particular factual situations are largely intangible and judgmental.

⁷⁷State v. Poole, rev'd for insufficient evidence, 285 N.C. 108, 203 S.E.2d 786 (1974); State v. Henderson, 285 N.C. 1, 203 S.E.2d10(1974), petition for cert. filed sub nom. Henderson v. North Carolina, U.S.S.C. No. 73-6853 (June 8, 1974); State v. Boyd, N.C. Sup. Ct. No. 7, Spring Term 1974, (pending on appeal). In State v. Henderson, supra, the defendant was also convicted of and sentenced to die for rape; and in State v. Boyd, supra, the jury was unable to agree on a homicide verdict after it was instructed that it could find the defendant guilty of second degree murder.

prosecutions in cases where they might have obtained convictions for this crime.

The inconsequential number of first degree burglary convictions under the Waddell regime is hardly surprising, since the exercise of prosecutorial discretion to blunt the impact of "mandatory" penalties in sympathetic cases has been one of the most significant phenomena observed in the enforcement of such statutes: "[a] charge may be reduced to avoid infliction of punishment harm that administrative officials regard as too severe in relation to the suspect's conduct. Usually, a less serious offense is charged because conviction of the maximum offense carries a statutory mandatory minimum sentence."80

As with the death-penalty statutes struck down in Furman, it is not necessary to conclude that North Carolina's capital laws are being intentionally administered "with an evil eye and an unequal hand," Yick Wo

v. Hopkins, 118 U.S. 356, 373-374 (1886). The point rather is that their implementation is necessarily and unavoidably arbitrary. Since no standards exist to regularize the exercise of prosecutorial discretion, there is nothing to guarantee that some defendants, like petitioner, will not be capitally charged while other defendants, probably guilty of similar conduct, are prosecuted for second degree murder or manslaughter. Although the choice of charge is quite literally the difference between life and death, that choice is a completely uncontrolled, discretionary decision of the Solicitor.

B. Plea Bargaining

Another point of entrance for arbitrariness in the administration of capital punishment in North Carolina under the Waddell procedures is the unfettered power of the Solicitor to accept a plea of guilty to a lesser or other non-capital offense from a capitally charged defendant, and/or to nol pros a capital indictment. Exercise of this discretionary power undercuts the "mandatory" nature of the death penalty for first degree murder as effectively as the practice of selectively charging homicide defendants with second degree murder or manslaughter at the outset. The guilty-plea process is unregulated by law, and the discretion of a Solicitor to accept a plea to a lesser offense in a capital case is therefore quite as untrammelled as the freedom of a jury to recommend mercy in a pre-Waddell capital prosecution.

52

MILLER, PROSECUTION: THE DECISION TO CHARGE A SUSPECT WITH A CRIME 207 (1969). Cf. Rosett, Discretion, Severity and Legality in Criminal Justice, 46 SO. CALIF. L. REV. 12, 49 (1972):

[&]quot;[0] fficials tend to respond to the undue harshness of punishments provided by the law by seeking discretion to avoid the imposition of that harshness in most cases. Yet, ironically, it is when the system is particularly severe that discretion may be most abusive and the temptation to act unjustly becomes greater. When the system is severe, discretionary decision-making becomes unacceptable because it reposes excessive authority in the hands of an often unsupervised individual official. In such a situation, the advantages of legal rules and process become exaggerated."

Plea bargaining is pervasive in the criminal justice system; guilty pleas are said to account for up to ninety per cent of all criminal convictions. Indeed, in view of the judicial resources available, the systematic and extensive practice of plea bargaining appears inevitable:

"[i] f all the defendants should combine to refuse to plead guilty, and should dare to hold out, they could break down the administration of criminal justice in any state in the Union. But they dare not hold out, for such as were tried and convicted

AND ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE, TASK FORCE REPORT: THE COURTS 9 (1967). See also Coon, The Indictment Process and Reduced Charges, 40 N.Y. ST. BAR J. 434 (1968). A study of the indictments for first and second degree murder in Massachusetts between 1956 and 1965 which received a final disposition in terms of guilt or innocence revealed that 221 out of 326 defendants (67.8%) entered a guilty plea and that 93.2% of these guilty pleas were to a lesser charge. Carney & Fuller, A Study of Plea Bargaining in Murder Cases in Massachusetts, 3 SUFF. L. REV. 292, 299 (1969). The study concluded that:

"there is a wide disparity among the courts in terms of the proportion of guilty pleas in murder cases. This finding indicates that the practice of plea bargaining is far from uniform. It also underscores the potential risk inherent in such an informal and invisible process as plea bargaining. For example, a defendant indicted for first degree murder in one court may have a very good chance of negotiating a plea of guilty to second degree murder, while in another court such a possibility may be minimal. The implications of this are serious, since conviction for first degree murder may well result in a sentence of death... Therefore, it seems crucial that the practice of plea bargaining be governed by specific and explicit guidelines that could be systematically and consistently applied from court to court."

Id. at 307.

could hope for no leniency. The prosecutor is like a man armed with a revolver who is cornered by a mob. A concerted rush would overwhelm him... The truth is that a criminal court can operate only by inducing the great mass of actually guilty defendants to plead guilty."82

Because homicide cases are likely to take up a great deal of time in preparation and trial, they are particularly likely to be settled by plea bargaining.⁸³ And the fact that the harshness of a death sentence creates a relatively great risk that a conviction will be reversed on appeal for procedural error provides an additional incentive for plea bargaining in capital cases:

"'[s] ince time immemorial... [prosecutors] will prefer to get a definite conviction, without the tremendous expense that goes with a murder trial, the taking of a chance that a jury may not convict, or that some technical error will be made in the heat of trial which will result in a reversal by an Appellate Court.'"

Pittsburgh First Assistant District Attorney James G. Dunn, quoted in Alschuler, *The Prosecutor's Role in Plea Bargaining*, 36 U. CHI. L. REV. 50, 55 (1966).

⁸⁴Bedau, Death Sentences in New Jersey 1907-1960, 19 RUTGERS L. REV. 1, 30 (1963) (quoting opinion of Judge C. Conrad Schneider, State v. Faison, No. 5-550-57, Bergen Cty. Ct., Nov. 21, 1958).

⁸² LUMMUS, THE TRIAL JUDGE 46 (1937).

In the words of one prosecutor:

[&]quot;'A murder case ties up a courtroom for a week, or at least for three days. We are naturally more anxious to bargain for guilty pleas in murder cases than we are in cases that might take fifteen minutes at trial."

Plea bargaining almost inevitably involves a reduction in charge or sentence: "[a] promise by the prosecutor of sentence leniency or a charge reduction as a concession for a plea of guilty is a major characteristic of the negotiated plea process."85 This Court is not unfamiliar with guilty pleas to lesser included offenses entered by North Carolina defendants charged with capital crimes, who thereby escaped possible death penalties. North Carolina v. Alford, 400 U.S. 25 (1970);86 Parker v. North Carolina, 397 U.S. 790 (1970). Such cases are a commonplace of "capital" justice. See, e.g., Tollett v. Henderson, 411 U.S. 258 (1973). Indeed, the prosecutor's attitude toward plea-bargaining in the case of a death-charged defendant is "probably the most widely significant choice separating the doomed from those who...go to prison."87 That attitude in turn reflects fundamentally the prosecutor's choice to insist upon or to remit the punishment of death. For his willingness to offer or accept a lesser plea (and how much lesser) responds not merely to his estimate of trial costs and contingencies but also to his wholly discretionary judgment — sometimes reasoned, sometimes "gut," sometimes principled and independent, sometimes politically opportunistic, but always selective and subject to the influence of factors which remain "demeaningly trivial compared to the stakes" — as to whether the particular offense or offender deserves capital punishment. 89

Furthermore, an ostensibly "mandatory" death penalty statute is especially likely to result in the selective allowance of guilty pleas to lesser included offenses, since "[m] any prosecutors and judges... support the practice as both necessary and desirable... to achieve sentencing flexibility which would sometimes be prevented by mandatory sentences." The negotiated

⁸⁵ NEWMAN, CONVICTION: THE DETERMINATION OF GUILT OR INNOCENCE WITHOUT TRIAL 29 (1966).

had a strong case of first-degree murder against Alford. Whether he realized or disbelieved his guilt, he insisted on his plea because in his view he had absolutely nothing to gain by a trial and much to gain by pleading. Because of the overwhelming evidence against him, a trial was precisely what neither Alford nor his attorney desired." 400 U.S. at 37.

⁸⁷BLACK, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT: THE INEVITABILITY OF CAPRICE AND MISTAKE 43 (1974).

This phrase was used by the late Professor Harry Kalven, Jr., and by Hans Zeisel to describe the factors affecting capital sentencing by juries before Furman. KALVEN & ZEISEL, THE AMERICAN JURY 448-449 (1966). It is equally apt to describe the factors influencing the prosecutor's plea-bargaining discretion after Furman and Waddell.

⁸⁹See BLACK, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT: THE INEVITABIL-ITY OF CAPRICE AND MISTAKE 41-44 (1974). Cf. note 91 infra.

⁹⁰NEWMAN, CONVICTION: THE DETERMINATION OF GUILT OR INNOCENCE WITHOUT TRIAL 102 (1966). Cf. Steinberg & Paulsen, A Conversation with Defense Counsel on Problems of a Criminal Defense, 7 PRAC. LAW No. 5, 25, 31-32 (1961):

[&]quot;[t] hese plea bargains perform a useful function. We have to remember that our sentencing laws are for the most part savage, archaic, and make very little sense. The penalties they set are frequently too tough The negotiated plea is a way by which prosecutors can make value judgments. They can take some of the inhumanity out of the law in certain situations."

plea is "the means by which...[a prosecutor] can avoid the unacceptably rigorous application of the letter of the law." Prosecutors

"declare without hesitation that one of their goals in the [plea] bargaining process is to nullify harsh, 'unrealistic' penalties that legislators have prescribed for certain crimes." 92

It is clear that a great many capitally charged defendants in North Carolina have been allowed to plead guilty to lesser offenses and thus to escape the threat of a death penalty.⁹³ In other cases, however,

91 Rosett, Discretion, Severity and Legality in Criminal Justice, 46 SO. CALIF. L. REV. 12, 25 (1972). See also Worgan & Paulsen, The Position of a Prosecutor in a Criminal Case – A Conversation with a Prosecuting Attorney, 7 PRAC. LAW. No. 7, 44, 53 (1961):

"[i] n many cases we believe we mitigate the harshness of the letter of the law by taking a guilty plea. We make such decisions only after much careful thought and I think we make them in a way that the community generally approves."

92 Alschuler, The Prosecutor's Role in Plea Bargaining, 36 U. CHI. L. REV. 50, 54 (1966). See also 2 PLOSCOWE (ed.), MANUAL FOR PROSECUTING ATTORNEYS 319 (1956); Coon, The Indictment Process and Reduced Charges, N.Y. ST. BAR J. 434, 438 (1968).

93 See, e.g., the following 17 cases: State v. Hamlin, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 74-Cr-11895 (April 1, 1974, indictment for first degree murder; April 12, 1974, guilty plea to second degree murder, sentence of 15-20 years); State v. Leroy Johnson, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 74-Cr-7160 (February 25, 1974, indictment for first degree murder; March 8, 1974, guilty plea to second degree murder, sentence of 10 years); State v. Harris, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 73-Cr-76418 (February 11, 1974,

(continued)

solicitors have wanted and achieved nothing less than a

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indictment for rape; August 19, 1974, guilty plea to assault on a female, sentence of 1 year); State v. Santor, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 73-Cr-68725 (February 11, 1974, indictment for first degree murder; July 15, 1974, guilty plea to voluntary manslaughter, sentence of 20 years); State v. Lacy Jones, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 73-Cr-698 (January 21, 1974, indictment for rape; September 16, 1974, guilty plea to assault on a female, sentence of 1 year); State v. Kenneth Jones, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 74-Cr-697 (January 21, 1974, indictment for rape; September 16, 1974, guilty plea to assault with intent to inflict serious injury, sentence of 1 year); State v. Chance, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 74-Cr-696 (January 21, 1974, indictment for rape; September 16, 1974, guilty plea to assault on a female, sentence of 1 year); State v. Goldston, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 73-Cr-73020 (January 7, 1974, indictment for first degree murder; May 24, 1974, guilty plea to voluntary manslaughter. sentence of 7 to 10 years); State v. Smith, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 73-Cr-54092 (October 29, 1973, indictment for first degree burglary; February 25, 1974, guilty plea to breaking and entering with intent to commit larceny, sentence of 7-10 years suspended with probation); State v. Otha Johnson, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 73-Cr-44188 (August 30, 1973, indictment for first degree murder; April 22, 1974, guilty plea to voluntary manslaughter, sentence of 14-18 years); State v. Wright, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 73-Cr-41760 (August 30, 1973, indictment for rape; November 7, 1974, guilty plea to assault on a female, sentence of time served); State v. Weatherspoon, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 73-Cr-38571 (August 30, 1973, indictment for first degree burglary; October 12, 1973, guilty plea to felonious breaking and entering, sentence of 1-2 years); State v. Ramos, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 73-Cr-30623 (May 29, 1973, indictment for first degree burglary; June 4, 1973, guilty plea to non-felonious breaking and entering, sentence of 2 years suspended with 5 years probation); State v. DeBoise, Wake

(continued)

capital conviction and sentence.

Plea bargaining under a "mandatory" statute is frequently said to "provide the opportunity to individualize justice.... Certain mandatory provisions of the statutes which in a particular situation seem unduly harsh may be avoided and a punishment selected which is best suited to the defendant who has already acknowledged his guilt." The result of this process, however, is thoroughly to vitiate the uniform operation of the statute:

(footnote continued from proceeding page)

County Super. Ct. No. 73-Cr-29233 (May 29, 1973, indictment for first degree burglary; October 22, 1973, guilty plea to felonious breaking and entering, sentence of 4 years suspended with probation); State v. Stephenson, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 73-Cr-27254 (May 29, 1973, indictment for rape; April 29, 1974, guilty plea to assault with intent to commit rape, sentence of 10 years); State v. Franks, Wake County Super. Ct. No 73-Cr-20787 (April 24, 1973, indictment for rape; April 18, 1974, guilty plea to assault with intent to commit rape, sentence of 10 years); State v. Franks, Wake County Super. St. No. 73-Cr-15922 (April 9, 1973, indictment for first degree murder; November 26, 1973, guilty plea to voluntary manslaughter, sentence of 20 years). These cases, terminated by a guilty plea to a non-capital offense, were initiated by capital indictments returned in one of North Carolina's one hundred counties (Wake), the county in which petitioner was indicted, for offenses allegedly committed during the January 18, 1973 - April 8, 1974 period when the capital procedures mandated by State v. Waddell were in effect.

WASHBURN U. L. REV. 430, 455 (1970). See also NEWMAN, CONVICTION: THE DETERMINATION OF GUILT OR INNOCENCE WITHOUT TRIAL 98 (1966):

"[c] harge reduction offers the court an opportunity to individualize justice by distinguishing between technically similar cases in both sentence and conviction label, especially when sentencing discretion is denied by legislatively fixed terms."

"[i]n both Michigan and Kansas, where mandatory sentences for particular crimes are common, plea negotiation not only is a widespread practice considered necessary to obtain guilty pleas but is generally accepted by both prosecution and the trial courts as desirable in situations where charge reduction is necessary to avoid overly severe sentences." 25

Such a practice — by which some defendants indicted for capital offenses are permitted to escape with sentences less harsh than death as the result of plea negotiations conducted in the unlimited discretion of the prosecutor — may be thought necessary and proper, and it is doubtless inevitable, to achieve "individualized" and "humane" justice under the exceedingly broad range of death penalties made "mandatory" in North Carolina by Waddell. But in the very process of "ameliorating the severity of the more extreme punishment," United States v. Jackson, 390 U.S. 570, 582 (1968), it reintroduces exactly the kind of arbitrary selectivity condemned in Furman. 96

Id. at 76.

⁹⁶Although properly supervised plea bargaining may not violate Due Process, see Brady v. United States, 397 U.S. 742, 750-755 (1970), the result of plea bargaining practices may nevertheless render the administration of a capital punishment statute invalid under Furman v. Georgia. This is so for the same reason that the approval of standardless jury sentencing under the Due Process Clause in McGautha v. California, 402 U.S. 183 (1971), did not imply (as the subsequent Furman decision made clear) that the results of such a procedure complied with the Eighth Amendment.

⁹⁵ NEWMAN, CONVICTION: THE DETERMINATION OF GUILT OR INNOCENCE WITHOUT TRIAL 41 (1966).

[&]quot;A major characteristic of criminal justice administration particularly in jurisdictions characterized by legislatively fixed sentences, is charge reduction to elicit a plea of guilty."

C. Jury Discretion

Despite the annulment of explicit sentencing discretion following a first degree murder conviction, a North Carolina jury still has broad license to spare the life of a capital defendant. It may do so by convicting him of a lesser homicide offense, an attempt or an assault, or by recognizing some amorphously defined defense as a justification or mitigation of the offense, as well as by acquitting him altogether in the teeth of the evidence. Although this jury discretion is less straightforward than under North Carolina's pre-Waddell capital procedure, it is equally selective, and its greater diffusion merely injects greater arbitrariness into the disposition of capital offenders at the trial stage.

North Carolina General Statutes § 15-170 (repl. vol. 1969) provides that:

"[u] pon the trial of any indictment the prisoner may be convicted of the crime charged therein or of a less degree of the same crime..."

Petitioner's jury was charged on manslaughter, second degree murder, and first degree murder (A. 69-84), thereby giving it a de facto sentencing power to impose any punishment from a term of four months imprisonment (N.C. Gen. Stat. § 14-18 (repl. vol. 1969)) to a "mandatory" death penalty (N.C. Gen. Stat. § 14-17 (repl. vol. 1969)). The instructions given to this jury are representative of those utilized in most cases where a defendant is charged with "premeditated and deliberated" first degree murder; and a charge on lesser included offenses is not infrequently given even in cases of first degree murder allegedly committed during a felony, see State v. Knight, 248 N.C. 384, 103 S.E.2d

452 (1958), or by poisoning, see State v. Matthews, 142 N.C. 621, 55 S.E. 342 (1906). For not only is it the rule that a defendant may demand a lesser-included-offense instruction as a matter of right whenever any evidence could conceivably support a lesser conviction, 97 but — as we shall see below 98 — no effective restraint is imposed upon the trial judge's submission of lessers to the jury in the absence of any such evidence.

97"If . . . there is any evidence, or if any inference can be fairly deduced therefrom, tending to show one of the lower grades of murder, it is then the duty of the trial court under appropriate instructions to submit that view to the jury." State v. Knight, 248 N.C. 384, 103 S.E.2d 452, 456 (1958) (quoting State v. Spivey, 151 N.C. 676, 65 S.E. 995, 999 (1909)); State v. Childress, 228 N.C. 208, 45 S.E.2d 42, 44 (1947). If there is no evidence at all that a defendant was guilty of a lesser included offense, a defendant may not be able to demand such a charge as a matter of right, State v. Griffin, 280 N.C. 142, 185 S.E.2d 149, 151 (1971); State v. Duboise, 279 N.C. 73, 181 S.E.2d 393, 397 (1971); State v. Roseman, 279 N.C. 573, 184 S.E.2d 289, 294 (1971); State v. Hicks, 241 N.C. 156, 84 S.E.2d 545, 547 (1954); State v. Brown, 227 N.C. 383, 42 S.E.2d 402, 404 (1947); State v. Cox, 201 N.C. 357, 160 S.E. 358, 360 (1931), and a trial judge has discretion to charge that a defendant is either guilty of the capital crime or not guilty of any crime, State v. Hairston, 280 N.C. 220, 185 S.E.2d 633, 642-643 (1972); State v. Scales, 242 N.C. 400, 87 S.E.2d 916, 921 (1955); State v. Mays, 225 N.C. 486, 35 S.E.2d 494, 496 (1945); State v. Satterfield, 207 N.C. 118, 176 S.E. 466, 467-468 (1934); State v. Chavis, 80 N.C. 353, 357-358 (1879). However, if a lesser-included offense charge is given in such a situation, and if a defendant is convicted of the lesser without evidentiary support, the conviction will nevertheless be affirmed on appeal. See State v. Matthews, 142 N.C. 621, 55 S.E. 342 (1906), discussed in text at p. 78 infra.

98See text and notes at notes 117-119 infra.

The Supreme Court of North Carolina has frequently reversed convictions for capital first degree murder⁹⁹ because the trial court failed to give a charge on second degree murder,¹⁰⁰ voluntary manslaughter,¹⁰¹ or involuntary manslaughter.¹⁰² Indeed, the right to a lesser-included-offense charge is considered so important in

⁹⁹The rule in North Carolina is that "the judge's failure to submit the question of defendant's guilt of the lesser included offense is not cured by a verdict convicting the defendant of the highest offense charged in the bill," State v. Freeman, 275 N.C. 662, 170 S.E.2d 461, 465 (1969).

¹⁰⁰State v. Knight, 248 N.C. 384, 103 S.E.2d 452 (1958); State v. Gause, 227 N.C. 26, 40 S.E.2d 463 (1946); State v. Perry, 209 N.C. 604, 184 S.E. 545 (1936); State v. Newsome, 195 N.C. 552, 143 S.E. 187 (1928). When the State attempts to prove "willful, deliberate and premeditated killing," N.C. Gen. Stat. §14-17 (repl. vol. 1969), which did not occur during the course of a felony and was not committed by poison or lying in wait, the jury may decline to return a first degree verdict and convict instead for second degree murder, since "the jury before whom the offender is tried shall determine in their verdict whether the crime is murder in the first degree or second degree," N.C. Gen. Stat. §15-172 (repl. vol. 1969), and since "the jury alone may determine whether an intentional killing has been established where no judicial admission of the fact is made by the defendant." State v. Todd, 264 N.C. 524, 142 S.E.2d 154, 158 (1965). Cf. State v. Phillips, 264 N.C. 508, 142 S.E.2d 337, 341-343 (1965); State v. Drake, 8 N.C. App. 214, 174 S.E.2d 132, 135 (1970).

¹⁰¹State v. Manning, 251 N.C. 1, 110 S.E.2d 474 (1959); State v. Robinson, 188 N.C. 784, 125 S.E. 617 (1924); State v. Merrick, 171 N.C. 788, 88 S.E. 501 (1916). Cf. State v. Freeman, 275 N.C. 662, 170 S.E.2d 461 (1969).

102State v. Wrenn, 279 N.C. 676, 185 S.E.2d 129 (1971). Cf. State v. Freeman, 280 N.C. 622, 187 S.E.2d 59 (1972); State v. Freeman, 275 N.C. 662, 170 S.E.2d 461 (1969).

North Carolina that its omission is held to be reversible error even when the defendant fails to request it. State v. Riera, 276 N.C. 361, 172 S.E.2d 535 (1970); State v. Wagoner, 249 N.C. 637, 107 S.E.2d 83 (1959). See State v. Moore, 275 N.C. 198, 166 S.E.2d 652, 661 (1969); State v. DeGraffenreid, 223 N.C. 461, 27 S.E.2d 130, 132 (1943). Trial judges are therefore advised to err on the side of inclusion; and, once lesser-offense instructions on second degree murder and manslaughter are included in a first degree murder trial, the jury is given essentially unrestricted discretion to convict alternatively for any of the three crimes. The definitions of the respective offenses under North Carolina law do not distinguish them except in terms of vague, intangible and elusive elements that remain as intractable to objective fact-finding as they are inviting to "any amount of purely 'discretionary' decision."103

North Carolina General Statutes § 14-17 (repl. vol. 1969) defines as murder in the first degree any

"murder which shall be perpetrated by means of poison, lying in wait, imprisonment, starving, torture, or by any other kind of willful, deliberate and premeditated killing, or which shall be committed in the perpetration or attempt to perpetrate any arson, rape, robbery, burglary or other felony."

It then declares second degree murder to be "[a]ll

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¹⁰³BLACK, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT: THE INEVITABILITY OF CAPRICE AND MISTAKE 47 (1974).

other kinds of murder."104 Thus, in a case like petitioner's, "[m] urder in the first degree is the unlawful killing of a human being with malice, premeditation, and deliberation." State v. Moore, 275 N.C. 198, 166 S.E.2d 652, 657 (1969). See also State v. Faust, 254 N.C. 101, 118 S.E.2d 769, 771-773 (1961); State v. Payne, 213 N.C. 719, 197 S.E. 573, 579 (1938). "Murder in the second degree is the unlawful killing of a human being with malice, but without premeditation and deliberation." State v. Foust, 258 N.C. 453, 128 S.E.2d 889, 892 (1963). See also State v. Mercer, 275 N.C. 108, 165 S.E.2d 328, 337 (1969); State v. Smith, 221 N.C. 278, 20 S.E.2d 313, 320 (1942).105 Manslaughter is not defined by statute106 but has been declared judicially to be "the unlawful killing of a human being without malice and without premeditation and deliberation." State v. Kea, 256 N.C.

See N.C. Acts 1893, ch. 85. Since this date, the common law definition of murder as an unlawful and malicious killing has been applicable only to second degree murder; and to constitute statutory first degree murder, "the killing must be 'wilful, deliberate, and premeditated.' "State v. Rhyne, 124 N.C. 847, 33 S.E. 128, 129 (1899). Before 1893, "[a] ny unlawful killing of a human being with malice aforethought, express or implied, was murder and was punishable by death." State v. Benton, 276 N.C. 641, 174 S.E.2d 793, 803 (1970).

¹⁰⁵"Murder in the first degree is sometimes defined as murder in the second degree plus premeditation," *State v. Benton*, 276 N.C. 641, 174 S.E.2d 793, 804 (1970).

merely provides that the punishment for "manslaughter" shall be imprisonment "for not less than four months nor more than twenty years."

492, 124 S.E.2d 174, 175 (1962). See also State v. Benge, 272 N.C. 261, 158 S.E.2d 70, 72 (1967); State v. Baldwin, 152 N.C. 822, 68 S.E. 148, 151 (1910).

The constituent elements that mark the lines between first and second degree murder and manslaughter are extraordinarily hazy and amorphous. "The crime of murder in the first degree is distinguished by a mental process or psychological condition none [too] ... easy of expression." State v. Smith, 221 N.C. 278, 20 S.E.2d 313, 320 (1942). Indeed, the North Carolina Supreme Court has declared that the reason for the statutory division of murder into two degrees in 1893 was to "select ... out of all murders denounced by the common law those deemed more heinous on account of the mode of their perpetration." State v. Streeton, 231 N.C. 301, 56 S.E.2d 649, 652 (1949). See also State v. Cole, 132 N.C. 1069, 44 S.E. 391, 393 (1903).

"The passage of the Act of 1893 marks an era in the judicial history of the state. As far as we can ascertain, every other state had previously divided the common-law kind of murder into two classes. The theory upon which this change has been made is that the law will always be executed more faithfully when it is in accord with an enlightened idea of justice. Public sentiment has revolted at the thought of placing on a level in the courts one who is provoked by insulting words (not deemed by the common law as any provocation whatever) to kill another with a deadly weapon, with him who waylays and shoots another in order to rob him of his money, or poisons him to gratify an old grudge. So long as artificial proof of malice is allowed to raise the presumption of murder, this new law will fail to accomplish the object for which it was framed It is not the severity of

laws, but the certainty of their execution, that accomplishes the end that should be always in view in enforcing them. Heretofore public opinion has approved, and often applauded, the conduct of juries in disregarding the instructions of judges as to the technical weight to be given to the use of a deadly weapon. The consequence has been that, a lax administration of the law being tolerated in such cases, other juries have constituted themselves judges of the law as well as of the facts, when proof has shown a more heinous offense. The experience of a few years will probably demonstrate here, as elsewhere, that fewer criminals will escape under a law which is in accord with the public sense of justice than under one which makes no discrimination between offenses differing widely in the degree of moral turpitude exhibited."

State v. Fuller, 114 N.C. 885, 19 S.E. 797, 802 (1894).107

¹⁰⁷Cf. State v. Locklear, 118 N.C. 1154, 24 S.E. 410, 411 (1896) (emphasis in original):

"the act of 1893 says in express terms that the jury before whom the case is tried shall determine the degree of murder. And we do not understand this to mean an unbridled, arbitrary, or mob finding, any more than it was before the statute. Even before the act of 1893 we all know that it was within the power of the jury to acquit and turn loose a prisoner, no matter how guilty he might be, and the court was powerless. In fact, it is alleged that they often did this. But is is expected they will find the facts, and apply them to the law given by the court, determine whether the prisoner is guilty or not, and, if guilty, in what degree. We see no reason why they should act differently now to what they did before the statute, and we do not believe they are any more disposed to take the law in their own hands in deciding cases under the act of 1893 than they were before."

First degree murder is defined broadly, though vaguely:

"'[m] alice aforethought' was a term used in defining murder prior to the adoption of the statute dividing murder into degrees. As then used it did not mean an actual, express or preconceived disposition; but imported an intent, at the moment, to do without lawful authority, and without the pressure of necessity, that which the law forbade . . . As used in . . . G.S. § 14-17, the term 'premeditation and deliberation' is more comprehensive and embraces all that is meant by 'aforethought', and more."

State v. Hightower, 226 N.C. 62, 36 S.E.2d 649, 650 (1946). The difference between first and second degree murder turns on the presence or absence of "premeditation" and "deliberation":

"[p] remeditation means 'thought beforehand for some length of time, however short.'

'Deliberation means that the act is done in [a] cool state of blood. It does not mean brooding over it or reflecting upon it for a week, a day or an hour, or any other appreciable length of time, but it means an intention to kill, 109 executed by the defendant in a cool state of blood, in

¹⁰⁸See also State v. Smith, 221 N.C. 278, 20 S.E.2d 313, 320 (1942):

[&]quot;[a]s pointed out by the Attorney General, 'aforethought is defined as "premeditated" (Century, Webster), and "premeditated" is defined as "deliberate."

¹⁰⁹The intention to kill which is required for first degree murder, see, e.g., State v. Robbins, 275 N.C. 537, 169 S.E.2d 858, 861 (1969); State v. Stitt, 146 N.C. 643, 61 S.E. 566, 567 (1908), is sometimes said to be merely an element of premeditation and deliberation. State v. Propst, 274 N.C. 62, 161 S.E.2d 560, 567 (1968); cf. State v. Gordon, 241 N.C. 356, 85 S.E.2d 322, 324 (1955).

furtherance of a fixed design to gratify a feeling of revenge, or to accomplish some unlawful purpose, and not under the influence of a violent passion, suddenly aroused by some lawful or just cause or legal provocation."

State v. Reams, 277 N.C. 391, 178 S.E.2d 65, 71 (1970) (quoting State v. Benson, 183 N.C. 795, 111 S.E. 869, 871 (1922)). See also State v. Fountain, 282 N.C. 58, 191 S.E.2d 674, 683 (1972); State v. Benson, supra. "'No fixed length of time is required for the mental processes of premeditation and deliberation... and it is sufficient if these processes occur prior to, and not simultaneously with, the killing," State v. Perry, 276 N.C. 339, 172 S.E.2d 541, 547 (1970) (quoting 4 STRONG, NORTH CAROLINA INDEX 196 (2d ed. 1958)). The determination whether "premeditation" and "deliberation" exist is necessarily given over almost entirely to the intuition of the jury 110 because these elements "are not usually susceptible of direct proof, and are therefore susceptible of proof by

circumstances from which the facts sought to be proved may be inferred." State v. Walters, 275 N.C. 615, 170 S.E.2d 484, 490 (1969).

"Malice," the factor that separates murder from manslaughter, is equally a matter of inference — and often of inference (or presumption) from the same basic facts that might support the jury's inference of premeditation and deliberation.¹¹¹

¹¹¹See, e.g., State v. Duboise, 279 N.C. 73, 181 S.E.2d 393, 398-399 (1971) (alternative ground), and cases cited.

For example, the North Carolina cases say that malice is "implied" (see State v. Benson, 183 N.C. 795, 111 S.E. 869, 871 (1922), quoted in text pp. 72-74 infra; and see, e.g., State v. Payne, 213 N.C. 719, 197 S.E. 573, 579 (1938); State v. Cox, 153 N.C. 638, 69 S.E. 419, 421 (1910); State v. McDowell, 145 N.C. 563, 59 S.E. 690, 692 (1907)) or "presumed" (see State v. Sparks, N.C. _____, 207 S.E.2d 712, 719 (1974); State v. Phillips, 264 N.C. 508, 142 S.E.2d 337, 341 (1965)) whenever the defendant's intentional discharge of a deadly weapon results in death. This principle plainly involves an evidentiary presumption that throws upon the defendant the burden of proving (either through the presentation of evidence or through the appearance of mitigating circumstances in the State's case, e.g., State v. Vann, 162 N.C. 534, 77 S.E. 295, 298 (1913)) that a killing with a firearm was non-malicious. State v. Jackson, 284 N.C. 383, 200 S.E.2d 596, 599-600 (1973); State v. Freeman, 275 N.C. 662, 170 S.E.2d 461, 464 (1969); State v. Prince, 223 N.C. 392, 26 S.E.2d 875, 876 (1943), and cases cited. Whether it also means that the prosecution is always entitled to a second degree murder submission in a case where the defendant is armed with a firearm is unclear. State v. Downey, 253 N.C. 348, 117 S.E.2d 39, 43 (1960), implies this conclusion, although earlier cases suggest the contrary. See State v. Baldwin, 152 N.C. 822, 68 S.E. 148, 151-152 (1910); State v. Miller, 112 N.C. 878, 17 S.E. 167, 168-169 (1893).

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[&]quot;The line which separates felonious homicides committed ... without premeditation, from those accompanied by the additional mental condition called 'premeditation,' is shadowy and difficult to fix. The law cannot safely prescribe any uniform and universal rule in regard thereto. As in questions of negligence and the like, it can only define the term, and submit the question of its existence to the jury. It is well settled that the state of mind, intent, sanity, etc., is always a question of fact for the jury."

State v. Daniels, 134 N.C. 671, 46 S.E. 991, 993 (1904). See also note 111 infra.

"Malice is not only hatred, ill will or spite, as it is

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Since State v. Fuller, 114 N.C. 885, 19 S.E. 797 (1894), the North Carolina Supreme Court has consistently iterated the rule that premeditation and deliberation - unlike malice- are not "presumed" from an intentional discharge of a deadly weapon resulting in death. E.g., State v. Reams, 277 N.C. 391, 178 S.E.2d 65, 71 (1970). As expressed in Fuller, this doctrine seemed to forbid a permissive inference, as well as a presumption, of premeditation and deliberation. However, later expressions of the Fuller rule speak only of the impropriety of a "presumption," see e.g., State v. Reams, supra, 178 S.E.2d at 71; State v. Faust, 254 N.C. 101, 118 S.E.2d 769, 772 (1961); State v. Lamm, 232 N.C. 402, 61 S.E.2d 188, 190 (1950); State v. Bowser, 214 N.C. 249, 199 S.E. 31, 33 (1938); State v. Miller, 197 N.C. 445, 149 S.E. 590, 592 (1929); cf. State v. Booker, 123 N.C. 713, 31 S.E. 376, 380 (1898), and of the shift of the burden of proof which a true presumption implies, cf. State v. Propst, 274 N.C. 62, 161 S.E.2d 560, 566-568 (1968). Collateral doctrinal developments have undercut the notion that an inference of premeditation and deliberation may not be drawn from intentional use of a deadly weapon: "[p] remeditation and deliberation are not usually susceptible to direct proof but must be established from the circumstances surrounding the homicide." State v. Sanders, 276 N.C. 598, 174 S.E.2d 487, 499 (1970), rev'd on other grounds, 403 U.S. 948 (1971); see also State v. Britt, 285 N.C. 256, 204 S.E.2d 817, 822 (1974); State v. Evans, 198 N.C. 82, 150 S.E. 678, 679-680 (1929); State v. Hamilton, 19 N.C. App. 436, 199 S.E.2d 159, 160 (1973). The jury is to determine premeditation and deliberation from "'all the attendant circumstances'" under which the homicide is committed, State v. Bowser, 214 N.C. 249, 199 S.E. 31, 34 (1938), including "the manner of the killing, [the defendant's] ... acts and conduct attending its commission," State v. Robertson, 166 N.C. 356, 81 S.E. 689, 692 (1914); any "vicious and brutal circumstances," State v. Duboise, 279 N.C. 73, 181

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S.E.2d 393, 399 (1971); and the "use of grossly excessive force," State v. Britt, 285 N.C. 256, 204 S.E.2d 817, 822 (1974) (quoting State v. Van Landingham, 283 N.C. 589, 197 S.E.2d 539, 545 (1973)). "[P] remeditation and deliberation may be inferred from a vicious and brutal slaying of a human being." State v. Reams, 277 N.C. 391, 178 S.E.2d 65, 71 (1970). Thus, it is no surprise that the North Carolina Supreme Court has abandoned its early occasional practice of reversing first degree murder convictions (see State v. Cole, 132 N.C. 1069, 44 S.E. 391 (1903); State v. Bishop, 131 N.C. 733, 42 S.E. 836 (1902) (alternative ground); State v. Rhyne, 124 N.C. 847, 33 S.E. 128 (1899); State v. Thomas 118 N.C. 1113, 24 S.E. 431 (1896) (alternative ground)) for insufficiency of evidence of premeditation and deliberation. Not since 1903 has a North Carolina appellate court held evidence insufficient to permit a finding of premeditation and deliberation, and therefore to support a first degree murder conviction -- even though reversals for insufficient evidence of matters such as identity are common, e.q., State v. Poole, 285 N.W. 108, 203 S.E.2d 786 (1974) (capital burglary); State v. Jones, 280 N.C. 60, 184 S.E.2d 862 (1971) (second degree murder). Numerous cases sustain first degree murder verdicts where virtually nothing more than an unprovoked killing with a deadly weapon was established by the prosecution. See, e.g., State v. Perry, 276 N.C. 339, 172 S.E.2d 541 (1970); State v. Old, 272 N.C. 42, 157 S.E.2d 651 (1967); State v. Lamm, 232 N.C. 402, 61 S.E.2d 188 (1950); State v. Matheson, 225 N.C. 109, 33 S.E.2d 590 (1945); State v. Hammonds, 216 N.C. 67, 3 S.E.2d 439 (1939); State v. Walker, 173 N.C. 780, 92 S.E. 327 (1917); State v. Ferguson, 17 N.C. App. 367, 194 S.E.2d 217 (1973).

The upshot, then, is that, in all but perhaps the rarest case of a killing by a defendant armed with a deadly weapon, no judicial control is exercised over the power of the jury to convict of any offense from manslaughter through first degree murder. The jury may or may not infer premeditation and deliberation from the same evidence which gives rise to the presumption of malice; and it may or may not find that presumption overcome to its "satisfaction" (see pp. 82-83 infra) by evidence of mitigation.

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but it also means that condition of mind which prompts a person to take the life of another without just cause, excuse or justification...It may be shown by evidence of hatred, ill will, or dislike, and it is implied in law from the killing with a deadly weapon..."

State v. Benson, 183 N.C. 795, 111 S.E. 869, 871 (1922). See also State v. Foust, 258 N.C. 453, 128 S.E.2d 889, 893 (1963); State v. Baldwin, 152 N.C.

822, 68 S.E. 148, 151 (1910); State v. Tilley, 18 N.C. App. 300, 196 S.E.2d 816, 818 (1973).

Definitions of this kind allow a jury almost complete freedom to return a capital or non-capital verdict not only upon the same evidence but upon the same factual interpretation of the evidence, finding or declining to find "premeditation," "deliberation" or "malice" in accordance with the desired sentencing consequences. To recognize this obvious truth is not to impugn the fidelity of jurors to their oaths but only to acknowledge that they are human. See Jackson v. Denno, 378 U.S. 368, 388-389 (1964). Legal formulations spelling the difference between life and death in terms that are "refractory to the best-instructed human understanding"113 do not merely permit - they imperatively require - the exercise of non-objective, non-factual, discretionary judgments and "the play of . . . prejudices."114 "[I] n a great many close cases, no matter how patiently the judge tries to explain to the jury that which he himself only cloudily understands, the net result must be that twelve laypersons have no alternative to using their general sense of the equities of the matter."115 Long ago, Justice (then Chief Judge) Cardozo recognized that the obscure distinctions between capital and non-capital grades of homicide - in particular, the concept of premeditation and deliber-

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¹¹²Proof of a fight between the decedent and the defendant or threats uttered by the decedent to the defendant is often sufficient to negate the inference of malice. See, e.g., the following cases in which defendant was convicted of manslaughter: State v. Benge, 272 N.C. 261, 158 S.E.2d 70, 70-72 (1967); State v. Camp, 266 N.C. 626, 146 S.E.2d 643, 644-645 (1966); State v. Suddreth, 230 N.C. 239, 52 S.E.2d 924, 925 (1949); State v. Church, 229 N.C. 718, 51 S.E.2d 345, 346 (1949); State v. Beachum, 220 N.C. 531, 17 S.E.2d 674, 675 (1941); State v. Bright, 215 N.C. 537, 2 S.E.2d 541, 542 (1939); State v. Reynolds, 212 N.C. 37, 192 S.E. 871, 871 (1937); State v. Baldwin, 184 N.C. 789, 114 S.E. 837, 838 (1922); State v. Yates, 155 N.C. 450, 71 S.E. 317, 317-318 (1911). However, a verdict of second degree murder is often affirmed in cases arising out of similar factual circumstances. See, e.g., the following cases in which defendant was convicted of second degree murder; State v. Cole, 280 N.C. 398, 185 S.E.2d 833, 833-834 (1972); State v. Feaganes, 272 N.C. 246, 158 S.E.2d 89, 89-90 (1967); State v. Barber, 270 N.C. 222, 154 S.E.2d 104, 105-107 (1967); State v. Morgan, 245 N.C. 215, 95 S.E.2d 507, 507-508 (1956); State v. Wingler, 238 N.C. 485, 78 S.E.2d 303, 305-306 (1953); State v. Russell, 233 N.C. 487, 64 S.E.2d 579, 580 (1951); State v. Taylor, 226 N.C. 286, 37 S.E.2d 901, 901-902 (1946); State v. Brinkley, 183 N.C. 720, 110 S.E. 783, 785-786 (1922); State v. Gentry, 125 N.C. 733, 34 S.E. 706, 706-707 (1899); State v. Rummage, 19 N.C. App. 239, 193 S.E.2d 475 (1972).

¹¹³Black, Crisis in Capital Punishment, 31 MD. L. REV. 289, 299 (1971).

opinion of Mr. Justice Douglas).

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ation - amounted largely to an indirect "dispensing power" of mercy:

"... the distinction [between first and second degree murder] is much too vague to be continued in our law [t] he statute is framed along the lines of a defective and unreal psychology.... What we have is merely a privilege offered to the jury to find the lesser degree when the suddenness of the intent, the vehemence of the passion, seems to call irresistibly for the exercise of mercy. I have no objection to giving them this dispensing power, but it should be given to them directly and not in a mystifying cloud of words. The present distinction is so obscure that no jury hearing it for the first time can fairly be expected to understand it. I am not at all sure that I understand it myself after trying to apply it for many years and after diligent study of what has been written in the books. Upon the basis of this fine distinction with its obscure and mystifying psychology, scores of men have gone to their death."116

speak of a "dispensing power," of course, is to describe only the benign half of what juries do when they "answer 'yes' or 'no' to the question whether this defendant was fit to live," Witherspoon v. Illinois, 391 U.S. 510, 521 n.20 (1968). A "yes" answer, "like the decision of the prosecutor to accept a piea of guilty in the plea-bargaining process, sounds good; somebody escapes death. The trouble is that if you turn the coin around, somebody else suffers death because the jury did not find him guilty of a lesser offense rather than of the capital charge. And if the jury's milder verdict may be a function of its sympathies, then its sterner verdict, by inevitable logic, may be a function of its lack of sympathy." BLACK, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT, THE INEVITA-

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We have already seen that the "privilege" described by Justice Cardozo "to find the lesser degree" must be afforded to the jury under North Carolina law when there is "any evidence, or... any inference... therefrom" of an unpremeditated or a non-malicious killing, within the vague contours of those unilluminating terms. But even that is not the whole story of the trial judge's or the jury's discretion in legard to lessers. For in North Carolina, a jury may also be charged on a lesser included offense where there is no evidence to

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BILITY OF CAPRICE AND MISTAKE 47 (1974) (emphasis in original).

Although it seems superfluous to make this point after Furman, we may note that the oft-quoted passage in Witherspoon v. Illinois, supra, regarding the jury's function in maintaining "a link between contemporary community values and the penal system," 391 U.S. at 519 n.15, did not state or imply the propriety of a system under which different juries decided whether different defendants were fit to live or die according to the particular reflection of community values fortuitously mirrored by the particular jury. The Witherspoon passage rather carefully states that, where a legislature has left the life-or-death sentencing choice to be made by juries without any guiding principles, preferences or standards, the juries' function is to reflect community attitudes regarding the death penalty - with the consequence that the reflection may not be distorted by improper jury-selection practices. The "where" clause in this analysis is a description of Illinois law (not challenged in Witherspoon): it is not a prescription for desirable or constitutional jury performance.

¹¹⁷State v. Knight, 248 N.C. 384, 103 S.E.2d 452, 456 (1958), quoted more fully in note 97 supra.

support such a charge, and a conviction for the lesser offense will be sustained on appeal. 118 State v. Benton, 276 N.C. 641, 174 S.E.2d 793 (1970); State v. Robertson, 210 N.C. 266, 186 S.E. 247 (1936); State v. Bryson, 173 N.C. 803, 92 S.E. 698 (1917). In State v. Matthews, 142 N.C. 621, 55 S.E. 342 (1906), for example, the appellant, who had been convicted of second degree murder, claimed that an indictment for murder by poisoning necessarily implied that he was either guilty of first degree murder or innocent of any crime. The Court affirmed, stating that such a conviction was within the power of the jury, 55 S.E. at 343, and that "whatever the reasoning of the jury, the prisoner has no cause to complain that he was not convicted of the higher offense." 55 S.E. at 344. In State v. Quick, 150 N.C. 820, 64 S.E. 168, 170 (1909), the Court held that the giving of a manslaughter charge in a first degree murder case had been proper:

"[s] uppose the court erroneously submitted to the jury a view of the case not supported by evidence whereby the jury were permitted, if they saw fit, to convict of manslaughter instead of murder,

what right has the defendant to complain? It is an error prejudicial to the state, and not to him."119

In State v. Bentley, 223 N.C. 563, 27 S.E.2d 738, 740 (1943), the Court declared:

"[i] f we are to understand the appellant to base his demand for discharge merely on the fact that the jury by an act of grace has found him guilty of a minor offense, of which there is no evidence, instead of the more serious offense charged, this is to look a gift horse in the mouth; more especially, since the conclusion that there is no evidence must be reached by conceding that all the evidence, including the admission of the defendant, points to a graver crime. Such verdicts occur now and then, despite the efforts of the courts to discourage them. When they do, although illogical or even incongruous, since they are favorable to the accused, it is settled law that they will not be disturbed."

The jury has the further statutory power in felony cases to find a defendant guilty of either an attempt to commit the crime charged in the indictment or an assault with intent to commit that crime. North Carolina General Statutes § 15-170 (repl. vol. 1969) provides:

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disapproved of this practice, State v. Bryant, 280 N.C. 551, 187 S.E.2d 111, 114 (1972); State v. Allen, 279 N.C. 115, 181 S.E.2d 453, 457 (1971); State v. Bentley, 223 N.C. 563, 27 S.E.2d 738, 741 (1943), but it has never reversed a conviction of a lesser included offense on the ground that there was no evidence to justify submitting such an offense to the jury.

¹¹⁹⁴ An error on the side of mercy is not reversible " State v. Fowler, 151 N.C. 731, 66 S.E. 567, 567 (1909). Accord: State v. Rowe, 155 N.C. 436, 71 S.E. 332, 337 (1911). See also State v. Vestal, 283 N.C. 249, 195 S.E.2d 297, 299-300 (1973); State v. Freeman, 275 N.C. 662, 170 S.E.2d 461, 466 (1969); State v. Johnson, 218 N.C. 604, 12 S.E.2d 278, 288 (1940); State v. Hall, 214 N.C. 639, 200 S.E. 375, 377 (1939); State v. Ratliff, 199 N.C. 9, 153 S.E. 605, 606 (1930).

"[u] pon the trial of any indictment the prisoner may be convicted of the crime charged therein... or of an attempt to commit the crime so charged, or of an attempt to commit a less degree of the same crime."

And N.C. Gen. Stat. § 15-169 (repl. vol. 1969) provides that:

"[o]n the trial of any person for...any felony whatsoever, when the crime charged includes an assault against the person, it is lawful for the jury to acquit of the felony and to find a verdict of guilty of assault against the person indicted, if the evidence warrants such a finding...."

Failure of the trial court to instruct the jury on attempt or assault may be reversible error. State v. Williams, 185 N.C. 685, 116 S.E. 736 (1923). 120

Additional avenues for avoidance of a "mandatory" death penalty for first degree murder are provided by the power of North Carolina juries to allow a variety of indefinitely defined defenses, justifications and mitigations to the capital charge. These include the complete defenses of self-defense (or defense of others), State v. Robinson, 213 N.C. 273, 195 S.E. 824, 829 (1938), and insanity, State v. Atkinson, 275 N.C. 288, 167 S.E.2d 241, 256-257 (1969); provocation and passion, State v. Merrick, 171 N.C. 788, 88 S.E. 501, 503

(1916); State v. Johnson, 23 N.C. 354, 359, 362 (1840); and "imperfect" self-defense, State v. Thomas, 184 N.C. 757, 114 S.E. 834, 836 (1922), which serve to reduce murder to manslaughter - doctrines of particular significance because "every practitioner, who has had any experience in the trial of capital cases, knows how prone juries are to compromise a capital case upon the middle ground of manslaughter," State v. Brittain, 89 N.C. 481, 501 (1883); and intoxication, which may avert at least a conviction of murder in the first degree, State v. Hammonds, 216 N.C. 67, 3 S.E.2d 439, 446-447 (1939). Each of these doctrines involves an "affirmative" defense which the jury may or may not choose to accept upon the evidence urged by the defendant to support it; each requires largely subjective judgments by jurors in the application of principles of the greatest vagueness and imprecision;121 and the

¹²⁰ See also State v. Green, 246 N.C. 717, 100 S.E.2d 52, 53-54 (1957); State v. Roy, 233 N.C. 558, 64 S.E.2d 840, 841 (1951); State v. Webb, 20 N.C. App. 199, 200 S.E.2d 840, 841 (1973). Cf. State v. Bryant, 280 N.C. 551, 187 S.E.2d 111, 116-118 (1972) (dissenting opinion of Mr. Chief Justice Bobbitt). "An assault with intent to commit rape is a lesser degree of the felony and crime of rape. It is well settled with us that an indictment for rape includes an assault with intent to commit rape." State v. Green, 246 N.C. 717, 100 S.E.2d 52, 54 (1957).

¹²¹ The contours of each North Carolina doctrine mentioned above are described in the following paragraphs, with the exception of insanity. Concerning the implications of the insanity defense as a means of avoiding capital punishment, see BLACK, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT: THE INEVITABILITY OF CAPRICE AND MISTAKE 50-55 (1974). North Carolina employs the traditional M'Naghten test of legal insanity, State v. Humphrey, 283 N.C. 570, 196 S.E.2d 516, 518-519 (1973), whose amorphousness is notorious, see, e.g., GOLDSTEIN, THE INSANITY DEFENSE 44-66 (1967). And two ancillary North Carolina doctrines effectively consign the insanity defense to the complete discretion of the jury. First, the quantum of evidence suggesting mental abnormality which is ordinarily necessary to raise the issue for the jury's consideration is extremely small, cf. State v. Atkinson, 275 N.C. 288, 167 S.E.2d 241, 256-257 (1969), rev'd on other grounds, 403 U.S. 948 (1971); State v. Harris, 223 N.C. 697, 28 S.E.2d 232, 237 (1943), except, perhaps, where the nature of the testimony is not directed to the M'Naghten issue, see State v. Helms, 284 N.C. 508, 201 S.E.2d 850, 852-853 (1974). Second, the burden of proof upon the issue is the "satisfaction of the jury" test (see pp. 82-83 infra), and "[t] he jury alone is the judge of its satisfaction." State v. 81 Harris, supra, 28 S.E.2d at 237-238.

peculiar North Carolina burden of proof on these issues — evidence "sufficient to satisfy" the jury — explicitly invites the making of those judgments in a wholly discretionary, non-objective manner.

"[The North Carolina] cases enunciate and reiterate the rule — established in our law for over one hundred years, State v. Willis, 63 N.C. 26 (1868) — that when the burden rests upon an accused to establish an affirmative defense or to rebut the presumption of malice which the evidence has raised against him, the quantum of proof is to the satisfaction of the jury — not by the greater weight of the evidence nor beyond a reasonable doubt — but simply to the satisfaction of the jury. Even proof by the greater weight of the evidence — a bare preponderance of the proof — may be sufficient to satisfy the jury, and the jury alone determines by what evidence it is satisfied."

State v. Freeman, 275 N.C. 662, 170 S.E.2d 461, 464 (1969) (emphasis in original). 122 "[T] he intensity of the

122See also State v. Jackson, 284 N.C. 383, 200 S.E.2d 596, 599-600 (1973); State v. Bolin, 281 N.C. 415, 189 S.E.2d 235, 242 (1972); State v. Boyd, 278 N.C. 682, 180 S.E.2d 794, 797 (1971); State v. Winford, 279 N.C. 58, 181 S.E.2d 423, 428 (1971); State v. Mercer, 275 N.C. 108, 165 S.E.2d 328, 333 (1969); State v. Todd, 264 N.C. 524, 142 S.E.2d 154, 158 (1965); State v. Prince, 223 N.C. 392, 26 S.E.2d 875, 876 (1943); State v. Meares, 222 N.C. 436, 23 S.E.2d 311, 312 (1942); State v. Benson, 183 N.C. 795, 111 S.E. 869, 871 (1922); State v. Carland, 90 N.C. 668, 674-675 (1884); State v. Calloway, 1 N.C. App. 150, 160 S.E.2d 501, 503 (1968); State v. Richardson, 14 N.C. App. 86, 187 S.E.2d 435, 437 (1972); and see State v. Barrett, 132 N.C. 1005, 43 S.E. 832, 833 (1903) (disapproving instructions that an affirmative defense must be established by the "greater proof" or "stronger proof").

The elements of which the jury must be thus "satisfied" are characteristically impressionistic. In assessing petitioner's claim of self-defense, for example, his trial jurors were called upon to decide whether, at the time of the incident with a man who had beaten him bloody that afternoon, petitioner had a "reasonable" apprehension of the necessity to kill in order to avoid suffering death or great bodily harm. See State v. Watkins, 283 N.C. 504, 196 S.E.2d 750, 754 (1973); State v. Kirby, 273 N.C. 306, 160 S.E.2d 24, 27 (1968); State v. Johnson, 270 N.C. 215, 154 S.E.2d 48, 52 (1967); State v. Fowler, 250 N.C. 595, 108 S.E.2d 892, 894 (1959); State v. Bryant, 213 N.C. 752, 197 S.E. 530, 533 (1938); State v. Robinson, 213 N.C. 273, 195 S.E. 824, 828 (1938). The application of this principle in the context of a case where the defendant seeks to prove that a prior fight with the decedent was resumed just before the killing obviously presents peculiar difficulties. See State v. Winford, 279 N.C. 58, 181 S.E.2d 423 (1971); State v. Baldwin, 152 N.C. 822, 68 S.E. 148 (1910).

"[O]ne may kill in defense of himself, or his family, when not actually necessary to prevent death or great bodily harm, if he believes it to be necessary and has a reasonable ground for the belief."

State v. Marshall, 208 N.C. 127, 179 S.E. 427, 428 (1935). See, e.g., State v. Gladden, 279 N.C. 566, 184 S.E.2d 249, 253 (1971); State v. Todd, 264 N.C. 524, 142 S.E.2d 154, 159 (1965). However, the defendant must not have been the "aggressor," State v. Jackson, 284 N.C. 383, 200 S.E.2d 596, 601 (1973) — a notion apparently involving concepts of relative "fault" — and he must have "used no more force

123 The Marshall case is frequently cited as the leading modern exposition of the law of self-defense in North Carolina. A more recent summary is found in State v. Jackson, 284 N.C. 383, 200 S.E.2d 596, 600-601 (1973). See also State v. Jennings, 276 N.C. 157, 171 S.E.2d 447, 450-453 (1970); State v. Kirby, 273 N.C. 306, 160 S.E.2d 24, 26-29 (1968); State v. Goode, 249 N.C. 632, 107 S.E.2d 70, 71-72 (1959); State v. Barrett, 132 N.C. 1005, 43 S.E. 832, 832-835 (1903).

124The North Carolina cases abound with statements that, in order to prevail on a claim of self-defense, a defendant must have been "without fault" in provoking the assault against which he defends. See, e.g., State v. Watkins 283 N.C. 504, 196 S.E.2d 750, 755 (1973); State v. Winford, 279 N.C. 58, 181 S.E.2d 423, 429-431 (1971); State v. Wynn, 278 N.C. 513, 180 S.E.2d 135, 139 (1971); State v. Johnson, 278 N.C. 252, 179 S.E.2d 429, 432 (1971); State v. Davis, 225 N.C. 117, 33 S.E.2d 623, 624

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than was or reasonably appeared necessary under the circumstances to protect himself from death or great bodily harm," State v. Boyd, 278 N.C. 682, 180 S.E.2d 794, 797 (1971). The use of "excessive force" defeats a claim of self-defense; 125 but one who uses excessive force may nevertheless prevail upon the partial defense of imperfect self-defense, which reduces murder – even by an intentional killing – to manslaughter, State v. Rummage, 280 N.C. 51, 185 S.E.2d 221, 225 (1971);

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(1945); State v. Robinson, 213 N.C. 273, 195 S.E. 824, 828-830 (1938); State v. Blevins, 138 N.C. 668, 50 S.E. 763, 764 (1905). In State v. Crisp, 170 N.C. 785, 87 S.E. 511 (1916), the North Carolina Supreme Court refined the fault concept (" 'a perfect right of self-defense can only obtain and avail where the party pleading it acted from necessity and was wholly free from wrong or blame in occasioning or producing the necessity which required his actions," 87 S.E. at 514) by recognizing degrees of fault: if a defendant begins an affray with the intention of inflicting great bodily harm, his right of self-defense is lost and the killing is murder; but if he begins or provokes the affray with some lesser assault or verbal abuse, his right of self-defense is rendered "imperfect," ibid., and he is guilty of manslaughter. The Crisp principle, turning the right of self-defense upon moral blame-worthiness, has deep roots in North Carolina law. See, e.g., State v. Chavis, 80 N.C. 353, 358 (1879); State v. Ellis, 101 N.C. 765', 7 S.E. 704, 705 (1888).

¹²⁵State v. Jackson, 284 N.C. 383, 200 S.E.2d 596, 601 (1973). See also, e.g., State v. Benge, 272 N.C. 261, 158 S.E.2d 70, 72 (1967); State v. McDonald, 249 N.C. 419, 106 S.E.2d 477, 478 (1959); State v. Mosley, 213 N.C. 304, 195 S.E. 830, 832 (1938); State v. Terrell, 212 N.C. 145, 193 S.E. 161, 164 (1937); State v. Marshall, 208 N.C. 127, 179 S.E. 427, 428 (1935); State v. Glenn, 198 N.C. 79, 150 S.E. 663, 664 (1929); State v. Cox, 153 N.C. 638, 69 S.E. 419, 422 (1910).

State v. Wynn, 278 N.C. 513, 180 S.E. 2d 135, 139 (1971); State v. Cooper, 273 N.C. 51, 159 S.E.2d 305, 309 (1968); State v. Robinson, 188 N.C. 784, 125 S.E. 617, 619 (1924); State v. Cox, 153 N.C. 638, 69 S.E. 419, 422 (1910). See also State v. Woods, 278 N.C. 210, 179 S.E.2d 358, 363 (1971); State v. Ramey. 273 N.C. 325, 160 S.E.2d 56, 59 (1968). Moreover, one who kills under the impulse of an unreasonable fear of death or serious bodily harm may also claim imperfect self-defense, reducing murder to manslaughter. State v. Thomas, 184 N.C. 757, 114 S.E. 834, 836-837 (1922); and see State v. Jennings, 276 N.C. 157, 171 S.E.2d 447, 450 (1970).

Another partial defense that may result in a manslaughter verdict is provocation and passion. The North Carolina version of this doctrine is complex. Provocation alone (isolated from the passion that it may arouse) is held not to preclude malice but only to rebut the presumption of malice arising from an intentional killing with a deadly weapon. State v.

Johnson, 23 N.C. 354, 359 (1840). Passion aroused by provocation, on the other hand, is said to be legally exclusive of malice: "[i]n law they cannot co-exist." Id. at 362. The psychological explanation offered by the early cases is that passion renders an individual heedless of the dictate of reason not to kill. See State v. Hill, 20 N.C. 491, 496 (1839); State v. Baldwin, 152 N.C. 822, 68 S.E. 148, 151-152 (1910). But even from the outset the doctrine has been seen as an "indulgence of the law," State v. Hill, supra, 20 N.C. at 496, "a condescension to the frailty of the human frame," ibid. "In mitigating the offence to manslaughter where death ensues upon a sudden rencounter of this sort, the law shews its indulgence to that frailty of human nature which urges men, before they have an opportunity for reflection, to a compliance with those common notions of honour which forbid either to give way to, or acknowledge the superior prowess of, the other." State v. Jarrott, 23 N.C. 76, 85 (1840). See also State v. Merrick, 171 N.C. 788, 88 S.E. 501, 503 (1916). As might be expected of a moralistic conception of this nature, its rules are fine-spun and casuistic. The North Carolina Supreme Court has declared that "'"passion" means any of the emotions of the mind known as rage, anger, hatred, furious resentment, or terror, rendering the mind incapable of cool reflection' 'Passion is not limited to rage, anger, or resentment. It may be fear, terror, or, according to some decisions, "excitement" or "nervousness," " State v. Jennings, 276 N.C. 157, 171 S.E.2d 447, 450 (1970). Passion must spring from provocation, State v. Carter, 76 N.C. 20, 22-23 (1877); "slight" provocation is insufficient, State v. Ellis, 101 N.C. 765, 7 S.E. 704, 705 (1888); see

fear" varieties of imperfect self-defense, North Carolina law recognizes other situations in which a killing may be nonmalicious, and hence merely manslaughter, because the defendant's use of deadly force was self-protective although not legally justifiable under the doctrines pertaining to self-defense. See State v. Finch, 177 N.C. 599, 99 S.E. 409, 414 (1919); State v. Yarborough, 8 N.C. 78, 85 (1820). One such situation is the permutation of the "aggressor" doctrine described in note 124 supra. Another is the situation in which the defendant fails to comply with the "safe-retreat" requirement for perfect self-defense. See State v. Garland, 138 N.C. 675, 50 S.E. 853, 854-855 (1905); cf. State v. Johnson, 23 N.C. 354, 364 (1840).

State v. Keaton, 206 N.C. 682, 175 S.E. 296, 298 (1934); the provoking conduct must in theory "amount to an actual or threatened assault," State v. Benson, 183 N.C. 795, 111 S.E. 869, 871 (1922); see also State v. Mosley. 213 N.C. 304, 195 S.E. 830, 832-833 North Carolina appellate courts have man- $(1938)^{127}$ aged to remain within these rules with only a little straining;128 but trial courts and juries have ignored them entirely.129 Passion is sometimes said to be synonymous with "heat of blood," State v. Jennings, 276 N.C. 157, 171 S.E.2d 447, 449 (1970); State v. Cooper, 273 N.C. 51, 159 S.E.2d 305, 309 (1968); but then again it is said that "'cool state of blood' does not mean the absence of passion and emotion..." State v. Britt, 285 N.C. 256, 204 S.E.2d 817, 822 (1974). The sum of the doctrine is to make murder or

manslaughter liability depend essentially upon the jury's empathy with the defendant on trial:

"reason should, at the time of the act, be disturbed or obscured by passion to an extent which might render ordinary men, of fair average disposition, liable to act rashly or without due deliberation or reflection, and from passion rather than judgment."

State v. Merrick, 171 N.C. 788, 88 S.E. 501, 503 (1916) (quoting Maher v. People, 10 Mich. 212, 220 (1862)). 130

These several doctrines, of course, do not exhaust the non-capital options available to petitioner's jury. Jurors in his case or like cases, applying legal principles that leave the widest latitude for subjective judgment and the "natural human tendency to see facts and to evaluate evidence in a manner leading to a desired conclusion," 131 might have returned verdicts ranging

OF CAPRICE AND MISTAKE 46 (1974).

¹²⁷The provoking conduct need not, however, amount to a felonious assault, *State v. Will*, 18 N.C. 121, 169 (1834), and it need not have threatened the defendant's life, *State v. Sizemore*, 52 N.C. 206, 209 (1859).

¹²⁸ See, e.g., State v. Baldwin, 152 N.C. 822, 68 S.E. 148 (1910) (unlawful arrest by the victim who "shoved" the defendant held adequate provocation); State v. Briggs, 20 N.C. App. 368, 201 S.E.2d 580 (1974) (victim's actions of breaking defendant's car window and inserting the upper part of his body into the car held adequate provocation).

¹²⁹ See, e.g., State v. Freeman, 275 N.C. 662, 170 S.E.2d 461 (1969) (victim threatened defendant, ran away, returned with his hand in his pocket; defendant who shot victim convicted of manslaughter); State v. Phillips, 262 N.C. 723, 138 S.E.2d 626 (1964) (victim opened door of car containing defendant and woman friend; defendant who shot victim convicted of manslaughter).

¹³⁰Provocation - may also be held inadequate where the defendant's response is disproportionately severe. State v. Ellis, 101 N.C. 765, 7 S.E. 704, 705 (1888); State v. Chavis, 80 N.C. 353, 358 (1879); State v. Curry, 46 N.C. 280, 287 (1854). Cf. State v. Gooch, 94 N.C. 987, 1010 (1886).

from second degree murder 132 to acquittal, 133 in order

¹³²Alcohol was implicated in petitioner's case (A. 14-15, 28-29, 52, 54), as it is in so many homicide cases. See WOLFGANG, PATTERNS IN CRIMINAL HOMICIDE 165-166, 323 (1966). Its involvement required consideration by the jury on the question of the premeditation and deliberation requisite for a capital, first degree murder conviction.

"... [W] hether intoxication and premeditation can coexist depends upon the degree of inebriety and its effect upon the mind and passions. "No inference of the absence of deliberation and premeditation arises from intoxication, as a matter of law." State v. Murphy, 157 N.C. 614, 619, 72 S.E. 1075, 1077. '[A] person may be excited, intoxicated and emotionally upset, and still have the capability to formulate the necessary plan, design, or intention to commit murder in the first degree."

State v. Hamby, 275 N.C. 674, 174 S.E.2d 385, 387 (1970). See also State v. Duncan, 282 N.C. 412, 193 S.E.2d 65, 69-70 (1972); State v. Baldwin, 276 N.C. 690, 174 S.E.2d 526, 532-533 (1970); State v. Propst, 274 N.C. 62, 161 S.E.2d 560, 567-568 (1968); State v. Amold, 264 N.C. 348, 141 S.E.2d 473, 474-475 (1965); State v. Smith, 221 N.C. 278, 20 S.E.2d 313, 321 (1942).

death sentences are an historical commonplace in the administration of "capital" justice. See, e.g., State v. Fuller, 114 N.C. 885, 19 S.E. 797, 802 (1894), quoted in text at pp. 67-68, supra; State v. Locklear, 118 N.C. 1154, 24 S.E. 410, 411 (1896), quoted in note 107, supra; Knowlton, Problems of Jury Discretion in Capital Cases, 101 U. PA. L. Rev. 1009, 1102 n.18 (1953); Note, The Two-Trial System in Capital Cases, 39 N.Y.U. L. REV. 50, 52 (1964); ZEISEL, SOME DATA ON JUROR ATTITUDES TOWARDS CAPITAL PUNISHMENT 2-3 (Center for Studies in Criminal Justice, 1968); Smith, Capital Punishment, 59 ALBANY L.J. 232, 241 (1899); Shipley, Does Capital Punishment Prevent Convictions? 43 AM. L. REV. 321 (1909)

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to avoid the death penalty. The inevitable propensity of

In McGautha v. California, 402 U.S. 183 (1971), this Court noted the "rebellion against the common-law rule imposing a mandatory death sentence on all convicted murderers," id. at 198, and the fact that "jurors on occasion took the law into their own hands in [murder] cases which were 'willful, deliberate, and premeditated' in any view of that phrase, but which nevertheless were clearly inappropriate for the death penalty. In such cases they simply refused to convict of the capital offense," id. at 199. See also Andres v. United States, 333 U.S. 740, 753 (1948) (concurring opinion of Justice Frankfurter); KALVEN & ZEISEL, THE AMERICAN JURY 306-312 (1966); Mackey, The Inutility of Mandatory Capital Punishment: An Historical Note, 54 B.U. L. REV. 32 (1974). Cf. ROYAL COMMISSION ON CAPITAL PUNISHMENT 1949-1953, REPORT ¶¶ 27-29 (H.M.S.O. 1953) [Cmd. 8932]; 1 RADZINOWICZ, A HISTORY OF ENGLISH CRIMINAL LAW AND ITS ADMINISTRATION FROM 1750 154-160 (1948). "[B] y far the most pronounced argument in favor of ending mandatory death penalties, echoed on every side, was the extreme difficulty of obtaining convictions in cases where a conviction is tantamount to a death sentence." BEDAU, THE DEATH PENALTY IN AMERICA 27 (rev. ed. 1967). This fact is cited by scholars as a reason for a particular jurisdiction's shift from a mandatory to a discretionary system of death sentencing or for a decline in a jurisdiction's conviction rate. See, e.g., The Death Penalty in the United States, 9 GREENBAG 129 (1897) (New York); McCafferty, Major Trends in the Use of Capital Punishment, 25 FED. PROB. (No. 3)15 (1961) (District of Columbia); Bedau, Death Sentences in New Jersey 1907-1960, 19 RUTGERS L. REV. 1, 28-31 (1965) (New Jersey); Phelps, Rhode Island's Threat Against Murder, 18 J. CRIM. L. & CRIM. 552 (1928) (Rhode Island); Bennett, A Historic Move: Delaware Abolishes Capital Punishment, 44 A.B.A.J. 1053 (1958), and

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any "mandatory" death-sentencing regime to produce this sort of selective evasion by juries is, of course, enhanced when the death penalty is made "mandatory" for a broad range of offenses including all first degree

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Bennett Delaware Abolishes Capital Punishment, 49 J. CRIM. L., CRIM. & POL. SCI. 156 (1958) (Delaware).

Cf. Wicker, "Christmas on the New Death Row," N. Y. Times, Dec. 25, 1973, at 18, col. 1:

"Raleigh, N.C. Dec. 24 . . . In January, 1973, the North Carolina Supreme Court ruled that the Federal Supreme Court had made it unconstitutional for a jury to recommend mercy, hence life imprisonment rather than death, for an arbitrary number of those convicted of first-degree murder, arson, rape or burglary; . . . Around here, some are still heaving sighs of relief at the case of a black man charged with breaking into a house and stealing about \$10 worth of food. The house was occupied, the break-in occurred at night, so the offense was first-degree burglary. Perhaps influenced by the only alternative available, the jury acquitted him, thus sparing him Christmas on the new Death Row but raising the question how mandatory death sentences can be considered an improvement on cruel and unusual punishment."

murders, rapes, first degree burglaries and arsons. ¹³⁴ It is encouraged, and all but explicitly condoned, by the North Carolina Supreme Court's ruling — which appears to have no other purpose or effect than to invite the exercise of jury discretion — that capital jurors may be informed of the consequences of their supposedly "mandatory" verdict and its alternatives. State v. Britt, 285 N.C. 256, 204 S.E.2d 817 (1974). There, the court held that if "the jury is confused or uncertain as to whether one of its permissive verdicts would result in a mandatory death sentence . . . sufficient compelling reason exists to justify [the trial judge's] . . . informing the jury of the consequences of their possible verdicts." 204 S.E.2d at 828. The court additionally ruled that "[c] ounsel may, in his argument to the jury, in any

discretionary form of capital sentencing in order to avoid unwarranted acquittals for these crimes by juries who did not want to see sympathetic defendants executed. In 1949, the Special Commission for the Improvement of the Administration of Justice in North Carolina reported that:

[&]quot;[o] nly three other states now have the mandatory death penalty and we believe its retention will be definitely harmful. Quite, frequently, juries refuse to convict for rape or first degree murder because, from all the circumstances, they do not believe the defendant, though guilty, should suffer death. The result is that verdicts are returned hardly in harmony with evidence. [A discretionary death penalty] . . . is already in effect in respect to the crimes of burglary and arson. There is much testimony that it has proved beneficial in such cases."

¹⁵ POPULAR GOVERNMENT 13 (January, 1949). A discretionary capital sentencing procedure was adopted shortly thereafter. See also State v. McMillan, 233 N.C. 630, 65 S.E.2d 212, 213 (1951).

case, read or state to the jury a statute or other rule of law relevant to such case, including the statutory provision fixing the punishment for the offense charged..." The defense attorney is not forbidden, "in his argument to the jury [to]... inform or remind the jury that the death penalty must be imposed in the event it should return a verdict of guilty upon a capital charge." Id. at 829.

The manner in which juries function in capital cases - particularly when they are told explicitly what is at stake - has been judicially noticed by the Supreme Court of North Carolina 135 and cannot realistically be ignored by this Court. 136 We venture to say that not a year passes when the certiorari process does not present a multitude of cases, rationally undifferentiable from petitioner's, in which a jury has returned a verdict of second degree murder or less. An altercation in a bar a separation and renewed meeting of the combatants some alcohol - a gun: the ingredients are tragically common. They form the backdrop of innumerable killings, crimes whose gravity no one can doubt, but which differing juries have immemorially treated as manslaughter, second degree murder, or first degree murder upon grounds that can only be described as inscrutable. The law reports of North Carolina are full of such cases where the verdict was less than first degree.137 Spectroscopic color-matching of particular cases with petitioner's undoubtedly discloses all of the more or less subtle differences of which the multifariousness of human existence is made. But it is impossible to read any number of these cases and deny the purely discretionary character of the jury judgments they reflect.

D. Executive Clemency

The North Carolina Constitution provides that:

"[T]he Governor may grant reprieves, commutations, and pardons, after conviction, for all offenses (except in cases of impeachment), upon such conditions as he may think proper, subject to regulations prescribed by law relative to the manner of applying for pardons."

Article III, § 5(6). Governors of the State have, by the exercise of this clemency power, spared the lives of a substantial proportion of condemned prisoners. Between 1903 and 1963, the sentences of 23% out of a total of 358 condemned prisoners were commuted. The chief executive thus commuted 65.6% of North Carolina death sentences over a sixty year period.

The Governor's discretion to spare the lives of condemned felons is absolute. The Constitution reserves to the legislature only the right to prescribe the "manner of applying for pardons;" otherwise, the Governor may grant or deny clemency as he chooses, subject to "such conditions as he may think proper."

¹³⁵State v. Locklear, 118 N.C. 1154, 24 S.E. 410, 411 (1896), quoted in note 107 supra; State v. Fuller, 114 N.C. 885, 19 S.E. 797, 802 (1894), quoted in text at pp. 67-68, supra; State v. Brittain, 89 N.C. 481, 501 (1883), quoted in text at p. 81, supra.

¹³⁶Cf. Watts v. Indiana, 338 U.S. 49, 52 (1949) (plurality opinion of Mr. Justice Frankfurter).

^{94 137} We collect some of the cases in Appendix C, pp. 1c-4c infra.

¹³⁸Note, Executive Clemency in Capital Cases, 39 N.Y.U. L. REV. 136, 192 (1964). See notes 146, 147 infra.

The North Carolina Court of Appeals has said with regard to the analogous executive power to grant paroles (a power originally conferred upon the Governor by Article III) that:

"[i] n a matter which historically, in this State at least, has been considered a function of the executive branch and which by its nature involves a large number of intangibles, rigid guide lines are neither necessary nor desirable."

Jernigan v. State, 10 N.C. App. 562, 179 S.E.2d 788, 792 (1971).

This conception of executive clemency is, of course, widespread; but it may be noted that the authority of the Governor of North Carolina in its exercise is less encumbered than that of the governors of many States. Several of the States which retain the death penalty have chosen to place some or all of the authority to make the clemency decision in the hands of a pardon board or executive council, while others require periodic reports to legislative bodies on the exercise of executive clemency, open hearings, the preparation of reasoned decisions on each application, or, in certain kinds of cases, the advice of judicial authorities.

North Carolina procedure requires none of these things. 144

Under laws providing for a "mandatory" death penalty, grants of clemency have been considerably more frequent than under procedures giving juries explicit discretion to sentence convicted capital defendants to life or death. A 1957 study of the imposition of capital punishment in North Carolina noted a pronounced decline in the number of commutations of death sentences after the 1941 and 1949 statutory amendments which enabled juries to impose sentences of either life imprisonment or death for the four crimes that had theretofore carried "mandatory" death penalties. A 1973 report on the history of the death

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¹³⁹See, e.g., Conn. Gen. Stat. Rev. § 18-24a (1970); Idaho Const. art. 4, § 7; Utah Code Ann. § 77-62-2 (1968); Neb Const. art. 4, § 13.

¹⁴⁰See, e.g., N. Y. Const. art. 4, § 4; Ark. Code Ann. § 41-4714 (1973 supp.).

¹⁴¹See, e.g., Idaho Const. art. 4 § 7; Neb. Const. art. 4, § 13;
Pa. Const. art. 4, § 9.

¹⁴²See, e.g., Del. Const. art. 7, § 1; Utah Const. art. 7, § 12.

¹⁴³ See California Const. art 5, § 8 (1974 West cum. supp.).

¹⁴⁴North Carolina has, however, adopted the practice of announcing reasons for the grant, but not for the denial, of executive clemency. Note, Executive Clemency in Capital Cases, 39 N.Y.U. L. REV. 136, 158 (1964).

¹⁴⁵ Johnson, Selective Factors in Capital Punishment, 36 SOCIAL FORCES 165, 166-167 (1957). A study of the history of the death penalty in New Jersey also found evidence that clemency is afforded more frequently under a "mandatory" system than under a discretionary system. See Bedau, Death Sentences in New Jersey 1907-1960, 19 RUTGERS L. REV. 1 (1964). During the years when the death penalty was mandatory (1907-1915), there were 42 executions and 11 death sentences commuted, a ratio of 11/42 or 26.2%. Id. at 10. However, during the years 1916-1960, when a discretionary system of capital punishment was in effect, there were 115 executions and 22 commutations, for a ratio of 22/115 or 19.1%. Ibid.

penalty in the State found that while 64%¹⁴⁶ of condemned defendants escaped execution between 1910 and 1948, the percentage of those escaping execution dropped to 38% for the 1949-1962 period, when a discretionary death penalty was in effect for all "capital" crimes.¹⁴⁷

The apparent explanation for this phenomenon is that in a "mandatory" system, the clemency authority undertakes to compensate for mitigating factors which, while insufficient to justify a verdict of not guilty, are nevertheless viewed by society as meriting some mercy in the imposition of sentence. Clemency serves "as a vehicle for the expression of society's compassion, as an outlet from the rigorous inflexibility of [the]... judicial system." One study has noted:

"[i]n a jurisdiction which provides for the sentence of death unless the jury recommends

mercy, the judge being bound by the jury's recommendation to impose a sentence, the clemency authority would normally refrain from reweighing the mitigating evidence presented at the trial. Obviously, the jury has here had the opportunity to assess extenuating circumstances apart from the issue of guilt. It is the belief of many that this function of the jury strips the clemency authority of much of its power in capital cases." 149

If this observation is correct, the "mandatory" death penalty created by State v. Waddell is calculated to result in more frequent grants of executive clemency as the Governor effectively takes over where the jury leaves off. Not surprisingly, the clemency process will simply mirror the jury sentencing process condemned in Furman, with Governors granting or denying commutation according to standards that are unexplained, unreviewable, and changeable whenever different incumbents take office. 150

(continued)



¹⁴⁶BEHRE, A BRIEF HISTORY OF CAPITAL PUNISHMENT IN NORTH CAROLINA, Tables 2 and 3 (N.C. Dept. of Corrections 1973). This 64% figure is slightly different from the commutation rate cited in the N.Y.U. Law Review study, p. 95 supra, because the years surveyed (1903-1963 in the N.Y.U. Review study; 1910-1948 in the Behre study) were not identical. Another study of executive clemency in North Carolina reveals that of the 304 death sentences imposed between July 1, 1938, and December 31, 1953, 229 were commuted by the Governor, for a 77.1% clemency rate during this period. Johnson, supra note 145, at 166.

¹⁴⁷ BEHRE, op. cit. supra note 146, at Tables 2 and 3.

¹⁴⁸Lavinsky, Executive Clemency: Study of a Decisional Problem Arising in the Terminal Stages of the Criminal Process, 42 CHL-KENT L. REV. 13, 38 (1965).

¹⁴⁹Note, Executive Clemency in Capital Cases, 39 N.Y.U.L. REV. 136, 165-166 (1964) (footnote omitted).

¹⁵⁰ See the studies cited in note 145 supra. A system which places uncontrolled powers of commutation in the hands of a single official is arbitrary by definition. It can also be demonstrated that such a system is likely to be discriminatory in effect. A comparison of the executed and the commuted among condemned prisoners in Pennsylvania between 1914 and 1958 revealed that "less than 15 percent of the death-row offenders with court-appointed counsel received commutation of sentence compared to over 25 percent of those offenders with private counsel" (this differential was characterized as statistically significant for black, but not for white defendants) and that "there is reason to suspect — and statistically significant evidence

"For clemency knows no standards that are invocable as a matter of law. To the saved, this is mercy, of a quality not strained. To those who learn they are to die, it is irrational choice for death — the final such choice in a long series." 151

The various forms of arbitrary selectivity remaining in North Carolina's "mandatory" death penalty procedure thus insure that there will be no meaningful basis for distinguishing the few cases in which the death penalty is imposed from the many cases in which it is not. We do not suggest by the foregoing analysis that the selective discretion present at any of the separate stages of the criminal process would be constitutionally

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to support the suspicion – that Negroes have not received equal consideration for commutation of the death penalty." Wolfgang, Kelly & Nolde, Comparison of the Executed and the Commuted Among Admissions to Death Row, 53 J. CRIM. L., CRIM. & POL. SCI. 301, 309, 311 (1962).

A study of executive clemency in Illinois concluded:

"[c] ertain troublesome patterns seem to suggest themselves from an analysis of the referent Illinois commutation cases. It seems that much depends upon mere luck! What kind of attorney happens to be appointed by the state? How zealous is he in delaying execution through legal maneuvers and in generating publicity and public pressure? Of what logical relevance to life and death is a public relations campaign?"

Lavinsky, Executive Clemency: Study of a Decisional Problem Arising in the Terminal Stages of the Criminal Process, 42 CHI.-KENT L. REV. 13, 39 (1965).

OF CAPRICE AND MISTAKE 74 (1974).

objectionable in a non-capital case¹⁵² or even that any one form of discretion would necessarily be enough to invalidate a death penalty under the Eighth Amendment. But the arbitrariness of the entire procedural system is cumulative; and the gauntlet which a capitally charged defendant must now run is fully as unpredictable – its results equally capricious – as under the pre-Furman, pre-Waddell system. At no point in the process is a visible and deliberative life-death choice required; yet the inevitable discretionary decisions can only be more freakish and wanton inasmuch as they are disguised and more diffused. This deadly lottery brings petitioner's death sentence to the heart of the historic concerns of the Eighth Amendment as recognized in Furman.

¹⁵²BLACK, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT: THE INEVITABILITY OF CAPRICE AND MISTAKE 33 (1974):

[&]quot;[o] ur legal system is simply saturated, at all levels, with the ideas that requirements of fairness, certainty, and so on — all the things we mean when we say 'due process of law' — vary with the seriousness of the interest at stake, and that, as a corollary, imposition of the penalty of death carries with it a more exacting requirement than other punitive action of the political society."

Cf. Bell v. Burson, 402 U.S. 535, 540 (1971); Stanley v. Illinois, 405 U.S. 645, 650-651 (1972). See also pp. 115-117 infra.

ПІ.

THE EXCESSIVE CRUELTY OF DEATH

There are additional reasons why the death penalty reinstated by Waddell violates the essential guarantees of the Eighth and Fourteenth Amendments. These reasons are interrelated in the prevailing Furman opinions, and we treat them together here. Essentially, Furman reviewed the history of this country's use of the punishment of death and concluded that, although the extreme penalty was then authorized by law in forty-one American States (and by the federal government and the District of Columbia), it was in fact so rarely and so arbitrarily inflicted under discretionary sentencing procedures that it constituted a cruel and unusual punishment. This was so because the occasional and virtually random extinction of human life was a cruelty compounded by inequity, and because the very randomness and rarity of the punishment belied any claim that it fulfilled an accepted or acceptable penal purpose.

In Part II of this brief, we have demonstrated that the use of the death penalty remains arbitrary, random and occasional under North Carolina's post-Furman, purportedly "mandatory" system of capital sentencing because that system provides numerous mechanisms which express and implement the unwillingness of prosecutors, judges, juries and the Governor to accept a general, uniform and even-handed application of the penalty. These mechanisms and their use continue to be the means by which a punishment incapable of general

or substantial application is reserved for visitation on a mute and disfavored few. That sort of application of a penalty is one of the hallmarks of a cruel and unusual punishment in the Eighth Amendment sense. In this Part III, we examine the several relevant hallmarks and submit that they collectively condemn the penalty of death. Such an examination should, however, begin with consideration of the proper standards of judicial review of a penalty challenged under the Eighth Amendment.

A. The Standard of Judicial Review

We start with the "elementary" truth that legislative authorization of a punishment does not establish its conformity to Eighth Amendment principles of decency. If this were otherwise, the Eighth Amendment would be "little more than good advice" from the Founding Fathers to future legislators. Trop v. Dulles, 356 U.S. 86, 104 (1958) (plurality opinion of

¹⁵³Weems v. United States, 217 U.S. 349, 379 (1910).

¹⁵⁴ Trop v. Dulles, 356 U.S. 86, 103 (1958) (plurality opinion of Chief Justice Warren):

[&]quot;[w]e are oath-bound to defend the Constitution. This obligation requires that [legislative] ... enactments be judged by the standards of the Constitution. The Judiciary has the duty of implementing the constitutional safeguards that protect individual rights."

Chief Justice Warren.)¹⁵⁵ "The very purpose of a Bill of Rights was to withdraw certain subjects from the vicissitudes of political controversy, to place them beyond the reach of majorities and officials and to establish them as legal principles to be applied by the courts." West Virginia State Board of Education v. Barnette, 319 U.S. 624, 638 (1943).

This basic postulate is the source of the most delicate problem of Eighth Amendment adjudication: striking the balance between respect for the primary legislative power to define crimes and fix sanctions¹⁵⁶ and the diligence commanded by the constitutional role of the judiciary to protect and preserve the Constitution's

of Rights, see note 56 supra, which contained a prohibition of cruel and unusual punishments that was almost identical to that of Clause 10 of the English Bill of Rights of 1689 and to the Eighth Amendment, declared in the Virginia ratifying convention that it was necessary to limit the arbitrary punishing power of all branches of government. See pp. 38-39 supra. Patrick harry strongly agreed that Congress should not be allowed to "define punishments without this control." 3 ELLIOT'S DEBATES 447 (2d ed. 1863). See note 55 supra.

156 In this litigation we deal, of course, with a decision to maintain capital punishment that was made by a bare majority of the North Carolina Supreme Court through the application of state-law severability doctrines to a state statute. Nevertheless, that decision speaks with the voice of North Carolina for federal constitutional purposes. See Winters v. New York, 333 U.S. 507, 512-515 (1948); Cohen v. California, 403 U.S. 15, 23-24 n.5 (1971).

guarantees of individual rights against governmental — that is, necessarily, majoritarian — overreaching. The inescapable tension and its resolution were described with as much precision as the subject permits in Weems v. United States, 217 U.S. 349, 378-379 (1910):

"... prominence is given to the power of the legislature to define crimes and their punishment. We concede the power in most of its exercises. We disclaim the right to assert a judgment against that of the legislature, of the expediency of the laws, or the right to oppose the judicial power to the legislative power to define crimes and fix their punishment, unless that power encounters in its exercise a constitutional prohibition. In such cases, not our discretion, but our legal duty, strictly defined and imperative in its direction, is invoked. Then the legislative power is brought to the judgment of a power superior to it for the instant. And for the proper exercise of such power there must be a comprehension of all that the legislature did or could take into account, - that is, a consideration of the mischief and the remedy. However, there is a certain subordination of the judiciary to the legislature. The function of the legislature is primary, its exercise fortified by

opinion of Mr. Justice Powell) (citing *Blodgett v. Holden*, 275 U.S. 142, 147-148 (1927) (concurring opinion)):

[&]quot;[t] he review of legislative choices, in the performance of our duty to enforce the Constitution, has been characterized most appropriately by Mr. Justice Holmes as 'the gravest and most delicate duty that the Court is called on to perform."

presumptions of right and legality, and is not to be interfered with lightly, nor by any judicial conception of its wisdom or propriety. They have no limitations, we repeat, but constitutional ones, and what those are the judiciary must judge."

Thus, although a fitting deference to legislative will and to the autonomy of the States is always required, this Court bears the responsibility, placed exclusively upon it in the last analysis, to define and uphold the specific limitations which a written Constitution has erected as the boundaries beyond which no action or decision of American government may go. 158

There are circumstances under which the danger is particularly great that legislative judgment will not duly heed the constitutional rights of individuals. Here judicial scrutiny of legislation ought to be commensurately exacting. See Skinner v. Oklahoma ex rel. Williamson, 316 U.S. 535, 541 (1942). This is most frequently the case where statutes fall harshly only upon "discrete and insular minorities," United States v. Carolene Products Co., 304 U.S. 144, 153 n.4 (1938),

See also United States v. Nixon, _____ U.S. ____ 94 S.Ct. 3090, 3106 (1974).

and where their operation takes a form that "restricts those political processes which can ordinarily be expected to bring about the repeal of undesirable legislation," id. at 152 n.4. It is especially the case where cruel criminal punishments are applied to a very few: that is, in circumstances where the Eighth Amendment may be colorably invoked. And in the present case, additional considerations arising from the unique nature of the punishment of death require an uniquely stringent standard of judicial review under "the evolving standards of decency that mark the progress of a maturing society," Trop v. Dulles, supra, 356 U.S., at 101.

First, "[t] he basic concept underlying the Eighth Amendment is nothing less than the dignity of man." Id. at 100. The Amendment stands to assure that respect for individual human life and dignity restricts the state's responses to even the most culpable criminal conduct. Yet the decision to use capital punishment on a man implies a judgment that his dignity and worth may be denied absolutely, that his "'life ceases to be sacred when it is thought useful to kill him.' "159 Such a judgment deliberately to extinguish human life 160 —

¹⁵⁸ Cooper v. Aaron, 358 U.S. 1, 18 (1958):

[&]quot;[i] n 1803, Chief Justice Marshall, speaking for a unanimous Court, referring to the Constitution as 'the fundamental and paramount law of the nation,' declared in the notable case of Marbury v. Madison, 1 Cranch 137, 177, that 'It is emphatically the province and duty of the judicial department to say what the law is.' This decision declared the basic principle that the federal judiciary is supreme in the exposition of the law of the Constitution, and that principle has ever since been respected by this Court and the Country as a permanent and indispensable feature of our constitutional system."

¹⁵⁹Francart, quoted by Camus, Reflections on the Guillotine, in CAMUS, RESISTANCE, REBELLION AND DEATH 131, 176 (Mod. Lib. 1963).

¹⁶⁰ Death is truly an awesome punishment. The calculated killing of a human being by the State involves, by its very nature, a denial of the executed person's humanity.... An executed person has indeed 'lost the right to have rights." Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 290 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Brennan).

to employ a sanction that necessarily denies the very value upon which the Eighth Amendment rests imperatively calls upon "the obligations [of] ... the judiciary to judge the constitutionality of punishment" from an independent perspective. Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 313-314 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice White).

Second, the death penalty bears an awesome and irrevocable finality161 incomparable with other punishments. 162 This Court has said of sterilization that "[t] here is no redemption for the individual whom the law touches." Skinner v. Oklahoma ex rel, Williamson, supra, 316 U.S. at 541. That is literally true of capital punishment. No eloquence can embellish, nor human mind entirely conceive, death's utter irreversibility. 163 New

161"Capital punishment is an evil, unless justified [because] ... it extinguishes, after untellable suffering, the most mysterious and wonderful thing we know, human life." Black, Crisis in Capital Punishment, 31 MD. L. REV. 289, 291 (1971).

163 Thus, the declaration of Lafayette that infliction of the death penalty should be suspended "until . . . the infallibility of human judgment is demonstrated." Quoted in Pollak, The Errors of Justice, 284 ANNALS 115 (1952), and CLARK, CRIME IN AMERICA 334 (1970). The quotation has also been attributed to Jefferson, See BLOCK, AND MAY GOD HAVE MERCY . . . 1 (1962). See also Rubin, The Supreme Court, Cruel and Unusual Punishment, and the Death Penalty, 15 CRIME & DELING, 121. 130-131 (1969).

163"Human justice can never be infallible. No matter how conscientiously courts operate, there still exists a possibility that an innocent person may, due to a combination of circumstances that defeat justice, be sentenced to death and even executed. That possibility is made abundantly clear when one considers the many instances in which innocent persons have been saved from the extreme penalty either by the last minute discovery of new evidence or by a commutation followed perhaps after many years in prison by the discovery of the real criminal."

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knowledge, second thought, calmer passions, lessons of experience - every known corrective for the inevitable errors of judgment in penological, political, and constitutional experimentation comes too late. 164

Third, any balancing process which sets out to weigh the penalty of death in the pans of the Eighth Amendment must begin with the proposition that capital punishment is self-evidently cruel within every meaning of that word which a civilized, Twentieth-Century society can accept.165 We do not deal here with a punishment that can be considered cruel only in relation to the conduct that it is used to regulate, cf. Robinson v. California, 370 U.S. 660, 667 (1962) -

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SELLIN, THE DEATH PENALTY, 63 (1959), published as an appendix to AMERICAN LAW INSTITUTE, MODEL PENAL CODE, Tent. Draft No. 9 (May 8, 1959). See also Hogan, Murder by Perjury, 30 FORDHAM L. REV. 285 (1961); BORCHARD, CONVICTING THE INNOCENT 294-303, 309-316 (1932); Gardner, Helping the Innocent, 17 U.C.L.A. L. REV. 535 (1970).

164. [D] eath is different . . . it is irrevocable in quite a distinct sense from the general irrevocability of all happenings. If a mistake of any kind is discovered, it is too late. In every way and for every purpose, it is too late." BLACK, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT: THE INEVITABILITY OF CAPRICE AND MISTAKE 32 (1974).

165 The evolutionary character of Eighth Amendment standards no longer needs argument. The Clause is "progressive, and is not fastened to the obsolete, but may acquire meaning as public opinion becomes enlightened by a humane justice." Weems v. United States, 217 U.S. 349, 378 (1910). See also Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 242 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Douglas; id. at 264-269 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Brennan); id. at 325-328 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Marshall); id. at 383 (dissenting opinion of Chief Justice Burger); id. at 409 (dissenting opinion of Mr. Justice Blackmun); id. at 429 (dissenting opinion of Mr. Justice Powell.)

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cruel in "consideration of the mischief and the remedy", Weems v. United States, supra, 217 U.S. at 373.166

"The imposition and execution of the death penalty are obviously cruel in the dictionary sense. But the penalty has not been considered cruel and unusual in the constitutional sense because it was thought justified by the social ends it was deemed to serve."

Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 314 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice White).

It is not an overstatement to describe confinement under sentence of death as exquisite psychological

Camus, Reflections on the Guillotine, in CAMUS, RESISTANCE, REBELLION AND DEATH 131, 151-152 (Mod. Lib. 1963).

torture. See People v. Anderson, 6 Cal.3d 628, 493 P.2d 880, 894 (1972). With the commendable motive – and under the inescapable obligation - of striving to avoid erroneous or illegal executions, Twentieth-Century American justice has prolonged that torture. Of 608 persons under sentence of death at the end of 1970, 302 had been on Death Row for more than three years, 165 for more than five years, 81 for more than seven years, and 67 for more than eight years. 167 "[C] ontemporary human knowledge"168 of the nature of suffering and its effects upon the human mind teaches that over such extended periods the familiar manifestations of immediate terror cease as the extraordinary anxiety and pain of condemnation find other outlets. Anguish can no longer be conceived as some enormous multiple of the pain of a broken bone or a crushed fingernail, because human beings cannot tolerate many such multiplications without severe personality distortions such as the denial of reality. 169 The effects of these coping mechanisms observed in Death Row prisoners are acute;170 the alternative is emotional

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¹⁶⁶ Nevertheless, Camus' point deserves note:

[&]quot;[In considering the argument from lex talionis] let us leave aside the fact that the law of retaliation is inapplicable and that it would seem just as excessive to punish the incendiary by setting fire to his house as it would be insufficient to punish the thief by deducting from his bank account a sum equal to his theft. Let us admit that it is just and necessary to compensate for the murder of the victim by the death of the murderer. But beheading is not simply death. It is just as different, in essence, from the privation of life, as a concentration camp is from prison. It is a murder, to be sure, and one that arithmetically pays for the murder committed. But it adds to death a rule, a public premeditation known to the future victim, an organization, in short, which is itself a source of moral sufferings more terrible than death. Hence there is no equivalence. Many laws consider a premeditated crime more serious than a crime of pure violence. But what then is capital punishment but the most premeditated of murders, to which no criminal's deed, however calculated it may be, can be compared? For there to be an equivalence, the death penalty would have to punish a criminal who had warned his victim of the date at which he would inflict a horrible death on him and who, from that moment onward, had confined him at his mercy for months. Such a monster is not encountered in private life."

¹⁶⁷UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE, BUREAU OF PRISONS, NATIONAL PRISONER STATISTICS, Bulletin No. 46, Capital Punishment 1930-1970 42 (August, 1971).

¹⁶⁸ Robinson v. California, 370 U.S. 660, 666 (1972).

¹⁶⁹See, Note, Mental Suffering Under Sentence of Death: A Cruel and Unusual Punishment, 57 IOWA L. REV. 814, 827 (1972).

¹⁷⁰See Bluestone & McGahee, Reaction to Extreme Stress: Impending Death by Execution, 119 AM. J. PSYCHIATRY 393 (1962).

breakdown.171

The torture is perhaps more nearly comprehensible in the words of those who have suffered it:

"My feeling toward being on death row is unlimited. I can go on and on telling you the different feelings I experience being on Death Row. But I'm going to make it brief, because I can take the 68,634,000 square miles of the Pacific Ocean and put it into ink, and take all the trees in America and put them into pencils and paper, and still, it won't be enough material to express my feeling towards being on death row. My feeling being on death row is like no tomorrow. When I go into deep meditation, I can see life and feel the freedom that the universe has to offer, but when I come out of it, it's like being in the middle of a nightmare. So you can see why my thoughts has no end.

I feel as tho the world is caving in on me."172

The physical and psychological pain of execution itself – whether life is destroyed by gas, by electrocution, or by other means – is, of course, unmeasurable.¹⁷³ It is

172Coley, A Letter from Death Row, 3 JURIS DOCTOR 19 (Dec. 1973). Cf. DOSTOEVSKY, THE IDIOT 20 (Mod. Lib. 1935). See generally LEVINE (ed.), DEATH ROW-AN AFFIR-MATION OF LIFE (1972); CHESSMAN, TRIAL BY ORDEAL 3 (1955):

"I've witnessed the disintegration of the minds of the men around me. I've seen these men naked on the floor, rolling in their own excrement. I've listened as they smashed and shattered the sinks and toilets and fixtures in their cells. I've heard their prayers and their screams and their curses. I've observed their bodies being removed after they had destroyed themselves. I've read their pathetic pleas for mercy."

173 All medical witnesses agree that it takes a few seconds for the condemned man to lose consciousness after inhaling lethal gas. See Hamer, The Execution of Robert H. White by Hydrocyanic Acid Gas, 95 J. AM. MED. ASSN. 661 (1930); Rosenbloom, Report of a Case of Chronic Hydrocyanic Acid Poisoning, 8 J. LAB. & CLIN. MED. 258 (1923); ROYAL COMMISSION ON CAPITAL PUNISHMENT 1949-1953, RE-PORT 251-256 (Ii.M.S.O. 1953) [Cmd. 8932]. Other scientists assert that the condemned man is conscious for a longer time and dies by slow agonizing strangulation. KEVORKIAN, MEDICAL RESEARCH AND THE DEATH PENALTY 18-19 (1960). See also Schmitt & Schmitt, The Nature of the Nerve Impulse: The Effect of Cyanides Upon Medullated Nerves (Pt. 2), 97 AM. J. PHYSIOLOGY 302, 302-304 (1931). Cf. DUFFY & HIRSHBERG, 88 MEN AND 2 WOMEN 102-103 (1962):

"[t] he warden gives the executioner the signal and, out of sight of the witnesses, the executioner presses the lever that allows the cyanide gas eggs to mix with the distilled water

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¹⁷¹An evaluation of eight North Carolina death row inmates revealed that three, or thirty-five percent, had made "relatively poor adjustments, with obvious deterioration." Gallemore & Panton, Inmate Responses to Lengthy Death Row Confinement, 129 AM. J. PSYCHIATRY 81, 82, 1972. One of these had developed a complex delusional system; another became increasingly self-destructive and a third was constantly under medication "with varying degrees of unsustained relief" and was once hospitalized for drug overdose. Id. at 82-83. See also West, Medicine and Capital Punishment, in Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Criminal Laws and Procedures of the Senate Committee on the Judiciary, 90th Cong., 2d Sess., on S. 1760, To Abolish the Death Penalty (March 20-21 and July 2, 1968) 124, 125, 127 (G.P.O. 1970); Note, Mental Suffering Under Sentence of Death: A Cruel and Unusual Punishment, 57 IOWA L. REV. 814 (1972); Solesbee v. Balkcom, 339 U.S. 9, 14 (1950) (dissenting opinion of Justice Frankfurter).

one of the questions to which capital punishment cuts off an answer, leaving only such scant comfort or nagging doubt as speculation may provide. "Although our information is not conclusive, it appears that there is no method available that guarantees an immediate and painless death." Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 287 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Brennan). Here again, the ordinary deference due to legislative judgment encounters the objection that legislators, in common with all other men, simply cannot know significant facts on which advised, dispassionate judgment ought to turn at least in part. The decision to kill a human being is intractably a decision to do an act whose most immediate major consequences are unknowable. No amount of legislative inquiries or knowledge can close up that gap (compare, e.g., McGinnis v. Royster, 410 U.S. 263 (1973)), and all a legislature's "groping efforts" at experimenting with the penalty of death (compare, e.g., Tigner v. Texas, 310 U.S. 141, 148 (1940)) will not provide its members or mankind more information on the subject.

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and sulphuric acid. In a matter of seconds the prisoner is unconscious. At first there is extreme evidence of horror, pain, strangling. The eyes pop, they turn purple, they drool. It is a horrible sight. Witnesses faint. It finally is as though he has gone to sleep. The body, however, is not disfigured or mutilated in any way."

Evidence regarding the experience of electrocution is similarly inconclusive. A French scientist, Dr. L. G. V. Rota, has said "I do not believe that anyone killed by electrocution dies instantly, no matter how weak the subject may be." Quoted in SCOTT, THE HISTORY OF CAPITAL PUNISHMENT 219 (1950).

Fourth, the compatibility of the death penalty with Eighth Amendment values is called into question by its de jure or de facto abandonment among civilized nations. The Capital punishment has been abolished by most of the countries of Western Europe and the Western Hemisphere, The and is now in virtual disuse throughout the world. A penalty thus progressively repudiated on a world-wide scale surely warrants close and critical examination when tested by the constitutional standards of decency of a Nation whose citizens would be widely appalled to believe it laggard in the enlightened administration of justice.

Fifth, long-standing traditions defining the judicial role in capital cases recognize the need for close

¹⁷⁴ Despite a wave of terrorist bombings in 1974, the British House of Commons decisively rejected a measure to reinstitute the death penalty in Great Britian for terrorist murders. N.Y. Times, Dec. 12, 1974, at 7, col. 1.

¹⁷⁵An analysis of world-wide trends in the authorization and use of the penalty of death is contained in Appendix D, pp. 1d -6d infra.

^{176.} Those countries retaining the death penalty report that in practice it is only exceptionally applied and frequently the persons condemned are later pardoned by executive authority." UNITED NATIONS, ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL, Note by the Secretary-General, Capital Punishment (E/4947) 3 (February 23, 1971).

¹⁷⁷In declaring denationalization a cruel and unusual punishment, the Court relied in part upon the fact that "[t] he civilized nations of the world [were] . . . in virtual unanimity that statelessness is not to be imposed as punishment for crime." Trop. v. Dulles, supra, 356 U.S. at 102.

scrutiny of the punishment of death. The principle of strict construction in favorem vitae runs deep in Anglo-American history, 1713 and is only one exemplification of the special safeguards that apply in legal proceedings when life is at stake:

"[a] Il the state legal systems in one way or another by requiring jury unanimity, by forbidding pleas of guilty to a capital offense, by providing for automatic appeals, and so on - have recognized this distinction, quite without compulsion from the national Supreme Court. But when such compulsion was needed it has been forthcoming. For many years our federal Supreme Court required of the states that they invariably assign counsel in capital cases, while leaving the question of counsel in noncapital cases open to variation based on special circumstances; the fact that at last the Court decided counsel should be required in all serious criminal cases does not impair the force of the earlier cases as establishing national recognition of the immense difference between imprisonment and death. On the other side of the coin, the Supreme Court has several times upheld, as not violating any federal guarantee, state laws imposing more stringent requirements for trial in capital cases than in other cases."179

Review of procedural issues in death cases has been pursued under a policy of resolving legal "doubts...in favor of the accused," 180 and capital convictions generally have been scrutinized on appeal with an avowedly strict eye for error. 181 At a time when the other considerations we have enumerated raise the question of the continuing constitutional validity of the death penalty itself, it is appropriate that the same strict scrutiny be turned upon that question.

Finally, in suggesting that sort of scrutiny, we ask no more of the Court than society itself demands. Other punishments – even punishments of extreme severity – are and have long been accepted without the extraordinary controversy, the collective soul-searching, and the parade of elaborate justifications and rationalizations that have accompanied the peculiar institution of capital punishment. Despite the relatively minuscule number of its victims ¹⁸² the justifiability of the death penalty has been the subject of continuing and heated

¹⁷⁸See 1 RADZINOWICZ, A HISTORY OF ENGLISH CRIMINAL LAW AND ITS ADMINISTRATION FROM 1750 83-106 (1948).

OF CAPRICE AND MISTAKE 34 (1974). Profesessor Black refers, of course, to the evolution from *Powell v. Alabama*, 278 U.S. 45 (1932), through *Betts v. Brady*, 316 U.S. 455 (1942), to *Gideon v. Wainwright*, 372 U.S. 335 (1963); and to such cases as *Johnson v. Louisiana*, 406 U.S. 356 (1972).

¹⁸⁰ Andres v. United States, 333 U.S. 740, 752 (1948). See also, e.g., Williams v. Georgia, 349 U.S. 375, 391 (1955); Hamilton v. Alabama, 368 U.S. 52, 55 (1961); Witherspoon v. Illinois, 391 U.S. 510, 521 n.20 (1968); Reid v. Covert, 354 U.S. 1, 45-46 (1957) (concurring opinion of Justice Frankfurter); id. at 77 (concurring opinion of Justice Harlan).

Costly Myth, 9 GONZAGA L. REV. 651, 659 (1974), and authorities cited.

¹⁸²In 1970 nearly 80,000 persons were admitted to state and federal adult correctional facilities, only 127 of whom were under sentence of death. UNDED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE, SOURCEBOOK OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE STATISTICS 1973 358, 465 (August 1973).

debate¹⁸³ in religious, academic, legislative and law enforcement circles and among the general public. It is surely the case that "[a]t the very least... contemporary society views this punishment with substantial doubt." Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 300 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Brennan).

The moral character of this debate is as significant as its prevalence. The opposition to capital punishment – frequently voiced by religious denominations, ¹⁸⁴ among others – has been vigorously asserted on the basis of "fundamental moral and societal values in our civiliza-

been frequently catalogued. See, e.g., Vialet, Capital Punishment: Pro and Con Arguments (United States, Library of Congress, Legislative Reference Service, mimeo, August 3, 1966), reprinted in Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Criminal Laws and Procedures of the Senate Committee on the Judiciary, 90th Cong., 2d Sess., on S. 1760, To Abolish the Death Penalty (March 20-21 and July 2, 1968) 172-200 (G.P.O. 1970); BEDAU, THE DEATH PENALTY IN AMERICA 120-123 (rev. ed. 1967); 2 NATIONAL COMMISSION ON REFORM OF FEDERAL CRIMINAL LAWS, WORKING PAPERS 1350-1363 (G.P.O. 1970). See notes 184-186 infra.

¹⁸⁴For a description of the positions taken by various religious groups in opposition to capital punishment, see Bedau, *The Issue of Capital Punishment*, 53 CURRENT HISTORY No. 312 82, 84-85 August 1967).

tion and in our society." Proponents of the death penalty have responded with equal moral fervor. Surely no other criminal sanction has evoked such passionate, ceaseless philosophical argument.

185 Canadian Prime Minister Lester B. Pearson, addressing the House of Commons in support of a bill restricting the death penalty for murder in Canada. CANADA, HOUSE OF COMMONS, IV DEBATES, 27th Parl., 2d Sess. (16 Eliz. II) 4370 (Nov. 16, 1967). For similar expressions, see, e.g., Kazis, Jewish Tradition and Capital Punishment, 6 TRENDS 6 (Nov.-Dec. 1973); Editorial, Genesis and Capital Punishment. 66 CHRISTIAN CENTURY 355 (March 28, 1973); Controversy Over Capital Punishment: Pro & Con, 52 CONG. DIGEST 1, 10, 12, 16, 20, 26 (1974); National Council on Crime and Delinquency Policy Statement on Capital Punishment, 10 CRIME & DELINQ. 105 (1964); McGee, Capital Punishment as Seen by a Correctional Administrator, 28 FED. PROB. No. 2 11 (1964); Milligan, A Protestant's View of the Death Penalty, in BEDAU, THE DEATH PENALTY IN AMERICA 175 (rev. ed. 1967); Ehrmann, For Whom the Chair Waits, 26 FED. PROB. No. 1 14 (1962); BOK, STAR WORMWOOD (1959); CALVERT, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY (1927); GOWERS, A LIFE FOR A LIFE (1956); KOESTLER, REFLECTIONS ON HANGING (Amer. ed. 1957)

186See, e.g., Vellenga, Christianity and the Death Penalty, 6 CHRISTIANITY TODAY 7 (Oct. 12, 1959); Hon. Samuel Leibowitz, in Symposium on Capital Punishment, 7 N.Y.L.F. 249, 289-296 (1961); Controversy Over Capital Punishment: Pro & Con, 52 CONG. DIGEST 1, 11, 13, 15, 21, 25 (1974); Kinney, In Defense of Capital Punishment, 54 KY. L. J. 742 (1966); McDermott, Some Crimes Demand the Death Penalty, 11 POLICE 4 (Mar.-April, 1967); Caldwell, Why Is the Death Penalty Retained? 284 ANNALS 45 (1952); Coakley, Capital Punishment, 1 AM. CRIM. L. Q. 27 (1963); Cohen, The Need for Capital Punishment, 20 CHITTY'S L.J. 86 (1972); Hook, The Death Sentence, in BEDAU, THE DEATH PENALTY IN AMERICA 146 (rev. ed. 1967); Barzun, In Favor of Capital Punishment, 31 AM. SCHOLAR 181 (1962).

Agonizings of this sort that can neither be resolved nor stilled suggest a widespread perception that there is something fundamentally questionable about the penalty of death. In view of the extreme infrequency of its use, the troubled concerns which the punishment invariably arouses can only be explained by its uniquely and profoundly problematic aspects: its dissonance with the basic values of our society. For reasons to which we shall return - reasons having to do primarily with the rarity and secrecy of the actual use of the death penalty and with the outcast character of those subjected to it187 - the problematic aspects of capital punishment have not stayed state and federal legislatures from enacting it. But those aspects particularly warrant independent and stringent examination of the death penalty by this Court at a moment when the Nation, which has not executed a man or woman for seven and a half years, agonizes once again upon the brink.

Such an examination requires that the Court determine whether the manifest cruelty of taking human life is or is not "justified by the social ends it [is]...deemed to serve." Because of the unique character of the death penalty, 189 those justifications must be real and substantial; 190 and they must conform

If "less drastic means for achieving the same basic purpose" are available, the State must use them rather than indulge in the "pointless and needless extinction of life with only marginal contributions to any discernible social or public purposes." This much is implied in "the duty of [the] . . . Court to determine whether the action [of killing people] bears a reasonable relationship to the achievement of the governmental purpose asserted as its justification," or whether, conversely, the punishment of death is excessive and therefore unconstitutional.

B. THE JUSTIFIABILITY OF THE PENALTY OF DEATH

Criminal punishments are traditionally justified by five related but separable objectives: reformation and

¹⁸⁷See pp. 134 - 139, infra.

¹⁸⁸Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 312 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice White).

¹⁸⁹ See pp. 107 - 120 supra.

¹⁹⁰Cf. N.A.A.C.P. v. Alabama ex rel. Flowers, 377 U.S. 288, 307-308 (1964) (involving the right of association). See also Eisenstadt v. Baird, 405 U.S. 438 (1972); Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District, 393 U.S. 503 (1969).

¹⁹¹Cf. Edwards v. South Carolina, 372 U.S. 229, 236-237 (1963) (involving the right of free speech). See also e.g., Shapiro v. Thompson, 394 U.S. 618, 631 (1969); Carrington v. Rash, 380 U.S. 89, 94-96 (1965).

¹⁹²Shelton v. Tucker, 364 U.S. 479, 488 (1960) (involving the right of association).

¹⁹³Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 312 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice White).

¹⁹⁴Bates v. City of Little Rock, 361 U.S. 516, 525 (1960) (involving the right of association).

¹⁹⁸ Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 279-280, 300-305 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Brennan); id. at 309 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Stewart); id. at 312-313 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice White); id. at 331-332, 342-359 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Marshall).

rehabilitation, moral reinforcement or reprobation, isolation or specific deterrence, retribution, and deterrence. It is not enough, however, that the death penalty simply implement one or more of these goals. It must be demonstrated that this uniquely harsh punishment is better fitted to the effectuation of the permissible purposes of the criminal law than other kinds of available criminal penalties.

Of the first two of these objectives, little need be said. Clearly "reformation . . . can have no application where the death penalty is exacted." The imposition and execution of a death sentence are not designed to serve as instruments for the redemption of criminal offenders: to the contrary, they represent a determination that the offender is unredeemable. Similarly, the moral reinforcement or reprobation function provides no substantial justification for the unique harshness of the death penalty. While this

1949-1953, REPORT 18 (H.M.S.O. 1953) [Cmd. 8932]. See also SELLIN, THE DEATH PENALTY 69-79 (1959), published as an appendix to AMERICAN LAW INSTITUTE, MODEL PENAL CODE, Tent. Draft No. 9 (May 8, 1959); KOESTLER, REFLECTIONS ON HANGING 144-152 (Amer. ed. 1957); BEDAU, THE DEATH PENALTY III. AMERICA 395-405 (rev. ed. 1967); Bedau, Death Sentences in New Jersey 1907-1960, 19 RUTGERS L. REV. 1, 47 (1964).

197Cf. Stephen, Capital Punishment, 69 FRASER'S MAGAZINE 753, 763 (1864): "When a man is hung, there is an end of our relations with him. His execution is a way of saying, 'You are not fit for this world. Take your chance elsewhere.'"

¹⁹⁸See Ancel, The Problem of the Death Penalty, in SELLIN, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT 3, 16-17, 19 (1967).

objective doubtless requires that the most serious crimes be punished most seriously, "[g] rading punishments according to the severity of the crime does not require that the upper limit of severity be the death penalty." This objective contains no commensurability standard whereby the relative efficacy of the death penalty and life imprisonment can be judged. A severe punishment of any kind enforces equally the restraints of the criminal law.

While the death penalty may have once been necessary to control dangerous criminals, the development of a penitentiary system in the Nineteenth Century has provided an alternative means of containing such persons.²⁰⁰ Moreover, there is evidence that

"[i] n 1790, when the eighth amendment was adopted (and even more so in earlier centuries, when 'cruel and unusual punishments' were first prohibited in England) only two types of punishment were available to cope with serious offenses: death (with or without aggravations) and banishment, or 'transportation,' to the colonies or some other remote and relatively uninhabited region. Imprisonment, as something more than a mode of temporary detention prior to trial or as punishment for a minor offense, was entirely unknown at the time anywhere in Europe or America. How could anyone in 1790 sensibly have demanded that the 'evolving standards of decency' required there and then imprisonment rather than death for felons? There were no prisons, no trained custodial and administrative officers, no parole system, no statutes to authorize creating any of these, no public disposition to obtain them - in short, none of the attitudes, facilities and

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¹⁹⁹BEDAU, THE DEATH PENALTY IN AMERICA 268 (rev. ed. 1967).

²⁰⁰See Bedau, The Courts, The Constitution, and Capital Punishment, 1968 UTAH L. REV. 201, 232:

convicted murderers are less likely to engage in future criminal behavior than are other classes of offenders.²⁰¹ The execution of criminal defendants to insure their

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personnel obviously necessary to run a system of long term incarceration. Today, of course, banishment is no alternative at all. Instead, imprisonment is an entirely commonplace practice and a viable alternative to banishment and death for every serious crime. However inhumane and brutal imprisonment may be (and there is no doubt that in practice it often is), involuntary incarceration under close supervision may still be a necessary 'cruelty' in most cases involving the commission of violent crimes. The undeniably greater severity of death as a punishment over imprisonment is, ceteris paribus, sufficient by itself to establish its greater cruelty."

There are now in this country, 4,401 state, federal and local correctional facilities employing more than 70,000 people. UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE, SOURCEBOOK OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE STATISTICS 1973 108-109 (August 1973).

Willful Homicide violators returned to prison on new commitments . . . [was], with one exception (Alcohol Laws Violations), the lowest in any offender group." Neithercutt, Parole Violation Patterns and Commitment Offense, 9 J. RESEARCH CRIME & DELINQ. 87, 90 (1972). The murderer has also been found to have "a lower 'criminality level' than the non-murderer [while] in the prison population." Waldo, The "Criminality Level" of Incarcerated Murderers and Non-Murderers 60 J. CRIM L., CRIM. & POL. SCI. 60, 70 (1970). Of twenty-six homicides committed in American prisons in 1964, only two were committed by inmates serving sentences for capital murder. Sellin, Homicides and Assaults in American Prisons, 1964, 31 ACTA CRIMINOLOGIAE ET MEDICINAE LEGALIS JAPONICA 139 (1965).

effective isolation from society is an excessive punishment since less drastic means now exist to protect society (and are customarily used, for example, to constrain homicide defendants whose mental condition renders them incompetent to stand trial). Although the death penalty effectuates the goal of isolation of offenders, it is an unnecessarily harsh mechanism for obtaining this result.

The fourth traditional goal of criminal punishments is retribution, the achievement of the ancient talionis principle.

"The instinct for retribution is part of the nature of man, and channeling that instinct in the administration of criminal justice serves an important purpose in promoting the stability of a society governed by law. When people begin to believe that organized society is unwilling or unable to impose upon criminal offenders the punishment they 'deserve,' then there are sown the seeds of anarchy — of self-help, vigilante justice, and lynch law."

Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 308 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Stewart). The question of how far retribution, standing alone, is a legitimate goal of the criminal law is the mid-1970's is a complex one; but this case does not present that question for decision, since the death penalty as it is administered under the Waddell decree is not retributive in any meaningful way:

"the issue... is not... whether it is fair or just that one who takes another person's life should lose his own. Whatever you think about that proposition it is clear that we do not and cannot act upon it generally in the administration of the penal law. The problem rather is whether a small and highly random sample of people who commit murder or other comparably serious offenses ought to be despatched, while most of those convicted of such crimes are dealt with by imprisonment."²⁰²

The concept of retribution requires both a factual equivalency and a procedural regularity in the imposition of punishment²⁰³ which are simply not present in the administration of the death penalty for first degree murder, as we have demonstrated in Part II supra. While the Waddell death penalty might be sought to be justified indirectly in light of a retributive goal as a device to forestall private acts of vengeance, there is no empirical evidence that lynch law increases as executions decline. In fact, the relation between the lynching rate and the execution rate appears to be more one of direct than inverse proportionality, as the following statistics demonstrate:

TOHISTIA CO.		
Decade	Known Executions ²⁰⁴ Legal	Illegal
1890's	1,214	1,540
1900's	1,176	885
1910's	1,031	621
1920's	1,162	315
1930's	1,667	130
1940's	1,284	5
1950's	- 717	220

²⁰²Professor Herbert Wechsler, in Symposium on Capital Punishment, 7 N.Y.L.F. 249, 255 (1961).

There is yet another sense in which the death penalty can be said to bear no meaningful relation to the goal of retribution, for the lex talionis affords no commensurability standard. The attempts of various post-Furman statutes to authorize the death penalty for "outrageously or wantonly vile, horrible or inhuman" killings206 attest to this difficulty. For surely there is no retributive logic to justify the simple asphyxiation or electrocution of a defendant who has committed an atrocious crime: such a crime demands a far harsher punishment (under this logic) than the "mere extinguishment of life," Ex parte Kemmler, 136 U.S. 436, 447 (1890) But such punishments are clearly forbidden by the Eighth Amendment. With these constitutional limitations, it cannot be asserted that any particular penalty is more supportable by a retributive purpose than any other penalty.

The most frequently voiced justification for the death penalty is the deterrence of capital crimes However, as the empirical findings collected in Appendix E to this brief, pp. 1e-10e *infra*, conclusively demonstrate, there is no credible evidence — despite the most exhaustive inquiry into the subject — that the death

²⁰³See also Sellin, The Inevitable End of Capital Punishment, in SELLIN, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT 239, 243 (1967):

[&]quot;if we conservatively assume that there are now about 2500 capital murders annually in the United States and but seven executions, it is obvious that a life for a life is rarely taken."

²⁰⁴BOWERS, EXECUTIONS IN AMERICA 40 (1974).

¹²⁶ Ibid. 205 Available data on illegal executions ended in 1956

²⁰⁶Ga. Code § 27-2534.1 (1) (7) (1973). See Appendix A, p. 22a infra.

penalty is a deterrent superior to lesser punishments.²⁰⁷ The conclusions set forth in Appendix E may be briefly summarized. Official and scholarly inquiries have concluded overwhelmingly that use or disuse of the death penalty has no effect upon the frequency of criminal homicide. This conclusion is based on the following statistical evidence.

Death penalty jurisdictions do not have a lower rate of criminal homicide than abolition jurisdictions.

Given two states otherwise similar in factors that might affect homicide rates, and differing in that one employs capital punishment while the other does not, the abolition state does not show any consistently higher rate of criminal homicide.

207The few published claims of deterrent efficacy are based upon impressionistic accounts of law enforcement officers and do not explain the failure of the death penalty to affect crime rates. See, e.g., Hoover, Statements in Favor of the Death Penalty, in BEDAU, THE DEATH PENALTY IN AMERICA 130 (rev. ed. 1967); Allen, Capital Punishment: Your Protection and Mine, in BEDAU, THE DEATH PENALTY IN AMERICA 135 (rev. ed. 1967). We know of only one research-based claim of the deterrent efficacy of the death penalty. It is based upon unpublished findings but has been alluded to in a recent article as "indicat[ing] that each execution prevents between 8 and 20 murders." Tullock, Does Punishment Deter Crime?, THE PUBLIC INTEREST No. 36 103, 108 (1974), referring to Ehrlich, The Deterrent Effect of Capital Punishment: A Question of Life and Death, "to be published" in THE AMERICAN ECONOMIC REVIEW, id., at 111. Tullock goes on to say that: "... unfortunately, the data available for this study were not what one would hope for, so not as much reliance can be put upon [the] ... results as one normally would give to work by such a sophisticated econometrician." Id. at 108. In jurisdictions which abolish the death penalty, abolition has no influence on the rate of criminal homicide.

Jurisdictions which reintroduce the death penalty after having abolished it do not show a decreased rate of criminal homicide after reintroduction.

Prisoners and prison personnel do not suffer a higher rate of criminal assault and homicide from life-term prisoners in abolition jurisdictions than in death penalty jurisdictions.

The same conclusion has been reached with regard to the "mandatory" death penalty; "no indication" has been found "that the mandatory death penalty [is] . . . a more effective deterrent of homicide than discretionary capital punishment." 208

These findings are not surprising. For, in the first place, "crimes are committed for reasons other than a rational weighing of consequences." And, in the second place, the very aberrational, violent behavior to which the death penalty is now exclusively applied is less deterrable than any other human behavior, whether the sanction is death or imprisonment:

"[t] he deterrence argument requires that man be an essentially rational being, weighing all the possible consequences of his acts and rating the desirability of each possible consequence. Whether or not this view of man is generally true is

²⁰⁸BOWERS, EXECUTIONS IN AMERICA 160 (1974).

²⁰⁹Brief Amicus Curiae of the Committee of Psychiatrists for Evaluation of the Death Penalty, in Aikens v. California, 406 U.S. 813 [No. 68-5027] pp. 6-7.

debatable, but in the instance of murderers it is most certainly untrue."210

C. Public Acceptance of the Penalty of Death

Against the background of this evidence that the death penalty is excessive and unserviceable in terms of

210KAKOULLIS, THE MYTHS OF CAPITAL PUNISHMENT 2 (CENTER FOR RESPONSIBLE PSYCHOLOGY, BROOKLYN COLLEGE, C.U.N.Y., Report No. 13, 1974). See also Chambliss, Types of Deviance and the Effectiveness of Legal Sanctions, 1967 WISC. L. REV. 703; FATTAH, A STUDY OF THE DETERRENT EFFECT OF CAPITAL PUNISHMENT WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE CANADIAN SITUATION 31-38 (Department of the Solicitor General, Canada, Research Centre Report No. 2, 1972). Indeed, there is strong evidence that the death penalty may service to incite murder. It has been reported that in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there was an "epidemic of indirect suicides [in Norway and Denmark] ... when depressed people committed murder in order to be put to death" Id. at 39. In both countries laws were passed specifically exempting such people from the death penalty. "The law passed in Denmark in 1767 abandoned the death penalty in cases where melancholy and other dimal persons (committed murder) for the exclusive purpose of losing their lives." Ibid. Moreover, there is evidence that even the limited publicity surrounding an execution "has a 'brutalizing' effect on the population that more than offset[s] any deterrent effects" by causing an increase in the incidence of homicide in the periods immediately surrounding executions. BOWERS, EXECU-TIONS IN AMERICA 20 (1974). See also Glaser & Zeigler, Use of the Death Penalty v. Outrage at Murder, 20 CRIME & DELINO. 333 (1974).

the legitimate goals of the criminal justice system, we ask the Court to look again at the use society has made of it. For although the facts warrant a judicial judgment of excessiveness, the Court need not rely solely on its own appraisal of them. Society itself has pronounced a judgment, by its actions if not by its words. That judgment is that the penalty of death is both excessive and unacceptable.

To be sure, thirty jurisdictions have enacted death-penalty legislation since Furman (narrower, in all but two cases, than their pre-Furman authorizations of capital punishment).211 But, in every case, the legislature has preserved or created a wide range of selective mechanisms by which the death penalty can be avoided in most cases. Some States have expressly conferred life-or-death sentencing discretion upon capital juries, to be exercised pursuant to standards that purport to confine such discretion but do not do so in fact.212 Other States allow escape from "mandatory" death penalties through a variety of preconviction and postconviction outlets like those of North Carolina which we have described in Part II at pp. 45-100 supra. In this setting at least, the number of legislative authorizations is not - as Furman properly held - an appropriate test of acceptability of a harsh punishment. For acceptability is measured by what an enlightened public conscience will allow the law actually to do, not what it will permit a statute to threaten vaguely.213 And

²¹¹See note 15, supra; Appendix A, pp. 42a-43a, 55a infra.

²¹²See Petition for Writ of Certiorari, Eberheart v. Georgia, No. 74-5174 (filed August 19, 1974) pp. 32-36.

²¹³⁴ The objective indicator of society's view of an unusually severe punishment is what society does with it ... "Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 300 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Brennan).

the authors of even purportedly "mandatory" legislation — legislation written to be administered through discretionary judgments of prosecutors, judges, juries, and the Governor — can hardly be unaware that they are not in fact ordaining death except in a fraction of the cases covered by the statute. Prosecutors may be relied upon to "avoid the unacceptably rigorous application of the letter of the law" pleas to non-capital charges through the with the

²¹⁴Cf. Vidmar & Ellsworth, Public Opinion and the Death Penalty, 26 STAN. L. REV. 1245, 1252 (1974):

"[a]s reported previously, a substantial 59 percent of the public now favors capital punishment in principle. No more than 39 percent of the same persons, however, could say, 'If guilt were proven, I could always vote guilty even though the defendant would automatically receive the death penalty.' Another 16 percent agreed with the statement, 'I could never vote guilty, even if guilt were proven, knowing that the defendant would automatically receive the death penalty.' And a larger percent agreed that, 'I could not say in all cases, even if guilt were proven, that I would vote guilty, knowing the defendant would automatically receive the death penalty.'

Thus, by 49-39 percent, the American people indicate that in actual practice they would individually oppose the automatic imposition of the death penalty if a person were proven guilty of a crime such as murder.

The clear implication of these results is that while people feel that capital punishment is the most effective deterrent to crimes that take the life of other persons, there should be much latitude in the way the death sentence is handed out. The public wants to have the death penalty on the books, but would use it sparingly and by no means as an automatic punishment for a capital crime."

acquiescence (where required) of trial judges.²¹⁷ Juries can be counted on to make sentencing decisions "under the guise of resolving issues of evidential doubt."²¹⁸ At the end of the judicial process, the Governor may be expected to provide "an outlet from the rigorous inflexibility"²¹⁹ of "mandatory" capital punishment.

We are left, then, with the history of the past as prelude to the future. What that history shows is a rejection of the death penalty that "could hardly be more complete without becoming absolute." Given a choice of punishing "capital" offenders by death or something less, American systems of criminal justice have chosen against death for all but a scant handful of offenders.

"Although the number cannot be determined with precision, no one can doubt that in each of the

²¹⁵See text at note 91 supra.

²¹⁶See pp. 45-61 supra.

²¹⁷See pp. 57,61 supra.

²¹⁸KALVEN & ZEISEL, THE AMERICAN JURY 427 (1966). We have seen, indeed, that jury acquittals motivated by a desire to avoid capital punishment under "mandatory" sentencing schemes provided a major impetus for the replacement of those schemes with overtly "discretionary" ones during the late Nineteenth and early Twentieth Centuries. See note 133 supra. Cf. Mackey, The Inutility of Mandatory Capital Punishment: An Historical Note, 54 B.U.L. REV. 32, 35 (1974):

[&]quot;[a] ntebellum Americans ... whose experience with mandatory capital punishment was extensive, tended to account it a dangerous failure. They were satisfied that mandatory capital punishment did indeed have a deterrent effect; it deterred jurors from convicting palpably guilty men."

²¹⁹See text at note 148 supra.

²²⁰Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 300 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Brennan).

years involved [1930-1959], with executions ranging from 199 to 48, there were literally thousands of prosecutions that could legally have ended in a capital judgment.

The conclusion . . . is inescapable that punishment of death is inflicted in the United States on a bare sample of the culprits whose conduct makes them eligible for its imposition

[T] his experience reveals a deep reluctance in our culture to employ the final sanction. . . . "221

This reluctance "to impose or authorize the carrying out of a death sentence"222 is the more eloquent because of the context in which it has occurred For it is fair to say that the conditions of administration of capital punishment during the past several decades have been such as to promote its public acceptability to the fullest extent consistent with its nature and the tenor of the public conscience. In the first place, every American execution since 1936 has taken place in secret, isolated by law from the public eye and conscience.223 Indeed, there are but a handful of people in this Nation who have witnessed an execution and can speak with authority to the proposition that:

"... if people were to witness the decay of the waiting man, to hear his cries and watch his final struggles, they would be affronted in their consciences, and in their standards of humanity and of human dignity and decency."224

The rarity and secrecy of executions account for the fact that, although it is everywhere agreed that the cruelty of a death sentence is such that its imposition requires extraordinary justification, the wealth of research and theoretical debate on the subject of capital punishment is largely ignored. The often noted fact that "... American citizens know almost nothing about capital punishment"225 reflects two circumstances: we

²²³The first American State to abolish public executions was Pennsylvania, in 1834. See Filler, Movements to Abolish the Death Penalty in the United States, 284 ANNALS 124, 127 (1952). Public execution terminated in England in 1868, see TUTTLE, THE CRUSADE AGAINST CAPITAL PUNISHMENT IN GREAT BRITAIN 20 (1961); and such executions were progressively outlawed in the United States throughout the Nineteenth Century, see BYE, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT IN THE UNITED STATES 6 (1919). The last public execution in the country seems to have occurred in Kentucky in 1936. BARNES & TEETERS, NEW HORIZONS IN CRIMINOLOGY 307 (3rd ed. 1959).

²²⁴Gottlieb, Capital Punishment, 15 CRIME & DELINO, 1, 6 (1969). See West, Medicine and Capital Punishment, in Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Criminal Laws and Procedures of the Senate Committee on the Judiciary, 90th Cong. 2d Sess., on S. 1760, To Abolish the Death Penalty (March 20-21 and July 2, 1968) 124, 125 (G.P.O. 1970).

²²⁵Furman v. Georgia, supra, 408 U.S. at 362 (concurring opinion of Mr. Justice Marshall) (citing Gold, A Psychiatric Review of Capital Punishment, 6 J. FORENSIC SCI, 465, 466 (1961); KOESTLER, REFLECTIONS ON HANGING 164 (Amer. ed. 1957); and DUFFY & HIRSHBERG, 88 MEN AND 2 WOMEN 135 257-258 (1962)).

²²¹Professor Herbert Wechsler, in Symposium on Capital Punishment, 7 N.Y.L. F. 249, 252-253 (1961).

²²²PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON LAW ENFORCEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE, REPORT: THE CHALLENGE OF CRIME IN A FREE SOCIETY 143 (G.P.O. 1967).

are protected by disuse and by official secrecy from its reality; and, as a consequence, there is no incentive to examine rigorously its justifiability.

But the death penalty also knows a different and less innocent kind of isolation from public consciousness and conscience. It is a fact of human nature that we respond more readily to wrongs committed against those with whom we identify — those most like ourselves in appearance, background and mores. Conversely, wrongs we would not tolerate when done to our own kith or kind are tolerable when inflicted on those we despise or can ignore. The strong extant evidence and observations that the death penalty has been disproportionately applied to racial minorities²²⁶

and to the poor227 therefore cannot be ignored in

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Penalty, 123 AM. J. PSYCHIATRY 1361, 1362 (1967); and see Rubin, Disparity and Equality of Sentences – A Constitutional Challenge, 40 F.R.D. 55, 66-68 (1967); BOWERS, EXECUTIONS IN AMERICA 71-120 (1974); Auerbach, Common Myths About Capital Criminals and Their Victims, 3 GEORGIA J. CORRECTIONS 41 (1974). Evidence of discrimination has been equally strong when the sentencing systems under study were ostensibly mandatory:

"... although we have no empirical evidence that the mandatory death penalty is superior to discretionary sentencing as a deterrent to murder, we have seen that it has been associated with higher levels of execution, with comparable levels of racial discrimination, and, very likely, with reduced levels of capital convictions. In view of this evidence, it would appear that the adoption of the mandatory death penalty would mean a greater sacrifice of human life, continued discrimination against blacks, and the inability to convict some guilty offenders, without any deterrent benefit."

BOWERS, op. cit. supra, at 162; see also Garfinkel, supra.

The following are the total numbers of persons executed between 1930 and 1970, broken down by offense and race, as they appear in UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE, BUREAU OF PRISONS, NATIONAL PRISONER STATISTICS, Bulletin No. 46, Capital Punishment 1930-1970 12 (August, 1971):

	Murder	Rape	Other	Total
White	1664(49.9%)	48(10.5%)	39(55.7%)	1751(45.4%)
Negro	1630(48.9%)	405(89.1%)	31(44.3%)	2066(53.5%)
Other	40(1.2%)	2(0.4%)	0(0.0%)	42(1.1%)
	3334 (100%)	.455(100%)	70(100%)	3859(100%)

²²⁷"It is the poor, the sick, the ignorant, the powerless and the hated who are executed." CLARK, CRIME IN AMERICA 335 (1970). See DUFFY & HIRSHBERG, 88 MEN AND 2

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²²⁶Racial discrimination in the imposition of capital punishment has been borne out in a number of discrete and limited but careful studies. Johnson, The Negro and Crime, 217 ANNALS 93 (1941); Garfinkel, Research Note on Inter- and Intra-Racial Homicides, 27 SOCIAL FORCES 369 (1949); Johnson, Selective Factors in Capital Punishment, 36 SOCIAL FORCES 165 (1957); Wolfgang, Kelly & Nolde, Comparison of the Executed and the Commuted Among Admissions to Death Row, 53 J. CRIM. L., CRIM. & POL. SCI. 301 (1962); Bedau, Death Sentences in New Jersey 1907-1960, 19 RUTGERS L. REV. 1, 18-21, 52-53 (1964). Moreover, it has seemed apparent to responsible commissions and individuals studying the administration of the death penalty in this country. PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON LAW ENFORCEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE, REPORT: THE CHALLENGE OF CRIME IN A FREE SOCIETY 143 (G.P.O. 1967); PENNSYLVANIA, JOINT LEGISLATIVE COMMITTEE ON CAPITAL PUNISHMENT, REPORT 14-15 (1961); UNITED NATIONS, DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT (ST/SOA/ SD/9-10) 32, 98 (1968); BEDAU, THE DEATH PENALTY IN AMERICA 411413 (rev. ed. 1967); CLARK, CRIME IN AMERICA 335 (1970); MATTICK, THE UNEXAMINED DEATH 5, 17 (1966); WOLFGANG & COHEN, CRIME AND RACE: CONCEPTIONS AND MISCONCEPTIONS 77, 80-81 (1970); Hartung, Trends in the Use of Capital Punishment, 284 ANNALS 8, 14-17 (1952); Bedau, A Social Philosopher Looks at the Death

assessing the quality of such acceptance as the penalty has had. For present purposes, it matters little whether these disproportions are the result of discrimination, passive lack of empathy, inadequacy of defense resources 228, or some more benign explanations. The very fact of the disproportion means that public response

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WOMEN 256-257 (1962); LAWES, TWENTY THOUSAND YEARS IN SING SING 302 (1932); LAWES, LIFE AND DEATH IN SING SING 155 (1928); WEIHOFEN, THE URGE TO PUNISH 164-165 (1956); West, Medicine and Capital Punishment, in Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Criminal Laws and Procedures of the Senate Committee on the Judiciary, 90th Cong., 2d Sess., on S. 1760, To Abolish the Death Penalty (March 20-21 and July 2, 1968) 124, 125 (G.P.O. 1970); McGee, Capital Punishment as Seen by a Correctional Administrator, 28 FED. PROB. (No. 2)11, 12 (1964).

The characteristics of the inmates of death row are described in Bedau, Death Sentences in New Jersey 1907-1960, 19 RUTGERS L. REV. 1 (1964); Bedau, Capital Punishment in Oregon, 1903-1964, 45 ORE. L. REV. 1 (1965); Carter & Smith, The Death Penalty in California: A Statistical and Composite Portrait, 15 CRIME & DELINQ. 62 (1969); Johnson, Selective Factors in Capital Punishment, 36 SOCIAL FORCES 165 (1957); Koeninger, Capital Punishment in Texas, 1924-1968, 15 CRIME & DELINQ. 132 (1969). And see Brief for the N.A.A.C.P. Legal Defense and Educational Fund, Inc., and the National Office for the Rights of the Indigent, as Amici Curiae, in Boykin v. Alabama, 395 U.S. 238 (1969) [O.T. 1968, No. 642], p. 7 n.8.

²²⁸For a review of the disadvantages under which defense of an indigent, low or moderate income person must be conducted, see Goldberg, Equality and Governmental Action, 39 N.Y.U.L. REV. 205, 218-224 (1964).

to the enormity of the decision to kill a fellow human being is blunted. To the average citizen and the citizen of influence, death remains a penalty for *them*, not for *us*.

At this point, description of the acceptance of capital punishment by contemporary society becomes appropriately cyclical. For infrequent, racially and socially disproportionate application of the death penalty is maintained by the very attitudes it has helped to create. A harsh penalty, unacceptable in general application, is inflicted on the powerless and the unpopular while more sympathetic and attractive classes of defendants are spared. Thus applied, the residue of the penalty is acceptable to the public, which feels no pressure to restrict its broad availability on the statute books. The broad availability of the penalty in turn creates consistent pressure upon prosecutors, jurors, judges, and Governors, to take advantage of a variety of selective mechanisms to avert the punishment from all but an impotent and anonymous few.

This pattern of use, in turn, makes the justifications of capital punishment even more hollow. Reluctant, unpredictable and spotty application of the death penalty deprives it of the least capacity to serve its supposed penal functions. As a deterrent, it is wholly incredible; as a disabler, it is as useless and fortuitous as it is unnecessary; as an instrument of retribution, it is inadequate, haphazard, and unjust. The few men whom it kills die for no reason; they are executed "in the name of a theory in which the executioners do not believe." Distaste for the penalty grows, and fewer men are killed as society "watch[es] without impatience its gradual disappearance." 230

²²⁹Camus, Reflections on the Guillotine, in CAMUS, RESISTANCE, REBELLION AND DEATH 131, 141 (Mod. Lib. 1963).

²³⁰Ancel, The Problem of the Death Penalty, in SELLIN, CAPITAL PUNISHMENT 3 (1967).

The cycle can be broken only if the Eighth Amendment is employed in its most vital and essential function: to assure that principles of human decency are universally enforced, even — and especially — where rare and random application of a punishment makes their occasional violation virtually invisible except to the condemned.

CONCLUSION

Petitioner's death sentence is a cruel and unusual punishment forbidden by the Eighth and Fourteenth Amendments. The judgment of the North Carolina Supreme Court should therefore be reversed.

Respectfully submitted,

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Appendix C:

North Carolina is fendants Presently Under Sentence of Death. North Carolina Defendants Sentenced to Death Under The Procedure Established by State v. Waddell, 282 N.C. 431, 194 S.E.2d 19 (1973):

Alton James Henderson v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 73-6883 (filed June 8, 1974) (first degree burglary and rape); opinion below 285 N.C. 1, 203 S.E.2d 10 (1974);

David Earl Dillard v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 74-6875 (filed June 11, 1974) (first degree murder); opinion below 285 N.C. 72, 203 S.E.2d 6 (1974);

Tommy Noell v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 73-6876 (filed June 11, 1974); opinion below 284 N.C. 670, 202 S.E.2d 750(1974);

Henry N. Jarrette v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 73-6877
(filed June 11, 1974)(first degree murder and rape); opinion
below 204 N.C. 625, 202 S.E.2d 724 (1974);

Albert Crowder, Jr. v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 73-6878 (filed June 11, 1974) (first degree murder); opinion below 285 N.C. 42, 203 S.E.2d 38 (1974);

Jesse Thurman Fowler v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 73-7031 (cert. granted October 29, 1974); opinion below 285 N.C. 90, 203 S.E.2d 803 (1974);

Billy Honeycutt v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 73-7032 (filed July 9, 1974) (first degree murder); opinion below 288 N.C. 184, 203 S.E.2d 844 (1974);

Kelly Dean Sparks v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 74-669
(filed November 29, 1974)(first degree murder); opinion below
_N.C.__, 207 S.E.2d 71 (1974);

Mamie Lee Ward v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 74-6263 (filed March 28, 1975) (first degree murder); opinion below 286 N.C. 304, 210 S.E.2d 407 (1974);

Reginald Renard Lampkins v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 74-6673 (filed June 9, 1975)(rape); opinion below 286 N.C. 497, 212 S.E.2d 106 (1975);

John Richard Stegmann v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 74-6735 (filed June 26, 1975) (rape); opinion below 286 N.C. 638, 213 S.E. 262 (1975);

Richard Gordon v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 74-6733 (filed June 26, 1975) (first degree murder); opinion below 287 N.C. 118, 213 S.E.2d 708 (1975);

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Crawford Dean Lowery v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 75-5032 (filed July 7, 1975) (rape); opinion below 286 N.C. 698, 213 S.E.2d 255 (1975);

George Vick v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 755075 (filed July 11, 1975) (rape); opinion below 287 N.C. 37, 213 S.E.2d 335(1975)

Ernest Armstrong v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 75-5076 (filed July 11, 1975) (rape); opinion below __N.C.__, 212 S.E.2d 894 (1975);

Alexander McLaughlin v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 75-5077 (filed July 11, 1975) (first degree murder and rape); opinion below __N.C.__, 213 S.E.2d 238 (1975);

Vernon Junior Woods v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 75-5091 (filed July 14, 1975) (first degree murder and rape); opinion below 286 N.C. 612, 213 S.E.2d 214 (1975);

Ernest Ray Simmons v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 75-5262 (filed August 12, 1975) (first degree murder); opinion below N.C., 213 S.E.2d 280 (1975);

Ronnie Young v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No 75-5281 (filed August 15, 1975) (first degree murder); opinion below 287 N.C. 377, 214 S.E.2d 763 (1975);

Ernest John Vinson v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 75-5384 (filed September 3, 1975) (rape); opinion below N.C. Sup. Ct. No. 48, Wilson County (June 6, 1975);

Timothy Wesley Robbins v. North Carolina, U.S. Sup. Ct. No. 75-5424 (filed September 12, 1975) (first degree murder); opinion below N.C., 214 S.E.2d 756 (1975);

Albert Carey v. North Carolina, (first 'egree murder) N.C. Sup. Ct. No. 67, Mecklenburg County (Spring Term 1975);

State v. Bryant Henry Williams, Jr. N.C., 212 S.E.2d 113 (1975) (rape);

State v. George James Patterson, N.C. Sup. Ct. No. 29, Forsyth County (Fall Term 1974) (first degree nurder);

State v. James Avery, __N.C.__, 212 S.E.2d 142 (1975) (first degree murder);

State v. Robert Gary Bock, Moore County Super. Ct. No. 73-CR-6324 (March 8, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Charles D. Thompson, N.C. Sup. Ct. No. 41, Rutherford County (June 6, 1975) (first degree marger);

State v. Wayne Foddrell, Caswell County Super. Ct. No. 73-CR-1439 (June 7, 1974) (rape);

State v. Rozell Qendine Hunt, Anson County Sup. Ct. No. 74-CR-1538 (June 13, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Tharroy Davis, Lenoir County Super. Ct. Nos. 74-CR-1102, 74-CR-1103 (June 16, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Joseph Clinton Foster, Lenoir County Super. Ct. Nos. 74-CR-1248, 74-CR-1249 (June 16, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Thurman Lee Strickland, Onslow County Super. Ct. Nos. 74-CR-3671, 74-CR-3672, 74-CR-10568 (June 29, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Thomas Lee King, Gaston County Super. Ct. No. 74-CR-4357 (August 1, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Joseph King, Gaston County Super. Ct. No. 74-CR-4358 (August 1, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Roger Lawrence Wetmore, N.C. __, 215 S.E.2d 51 (1975)
(first degree murder);

State v. James Edward Britt, Robeson County Super. Ct. No. 73-CR-6567 (September 20, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Larry Bernard, New Hanover County Super. Ct. No. 73-CR-20420 (October 3, 1974) (rape);

State v. Bobby Clinton Foster, Mecklenburg County Sup. Ct. Nos. 74-CR-1600, 74-CR-1601 (November 22, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Pinkney Thomas Mitchell, Jr., Gaston County Super. Ct. No. 74-CR-9519 (October 30, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Vernon R. Walters, Halifax County Super. Ct. No. 74-CR4144 (November 24, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Cardell Spaulding, Halifax County Super.Ct. No. 74-CR-4142 (November 24, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. James A. Bush, Onslow County Super. Ct. Nos. 74-CR-22494,
74-CR-22495, 74-CR-22496 (May 22, 1975)(first degree murder);

State v. Lawrence McCall, Transylvania County Super. Ct. No. 73-CR-1825 (June 7, 1975) (first degree murder);

State v. Edward McKenna, Wake County Super. Ct. No. 75-CR-25872
(July 12, 1975)(first degree murder);

State v. David D. Smith, Mecklenburg County Super. Ct. No. 74-CR-1598, 1599 (November 22, 1974) (first degree murder).

North Carolina Defendants Sentenced to Death Under the Procedures Established by N. C. Stasten Laws 1973 (2nd sess. 1974) c. 1201, §1, amending N.C. Gen. Stat. §14-17 (1974 cum. supp.):

State v. Henry A. Tatum, Durham County Super. Ct., 74-CR-16919 (July 21, 1974) (first degree murder):

State v. Ted Carter, Gaston County Super. Ct., 74-CR-18028
(August 2, 1974)(first degree murder);

State v. Varas B. Shader, Onslow County Super. Ct., 74-CR-15759 (August 18, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Wallace C. Lanford, Gaston County Super. Ct., 74-CR-9539 (October 30, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Larry C. Clark, Catawba County Super. Ct., 74-CR-13140 (October 31, 1974) (first degree rape);

State v. Artis McClain, Catawba County Super. Ct., 74-CR-13138 (October 31, 1974) (first degree rape):

State v. Carl Miller, Catawba County Super. Ct., 74-CR-13135 (October 31, 1974) (first degree rape);

State v. Joe Lee Cobbs, Halifax County Super. Ct., 74-CR-4143 (November 24, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. James Woodson, Harnett County Super. Ct., 74-CR-5054 (December 9, 1974) (first degree murder);

State v. Luby Waxton, Harnett County Super. Ct., 74-CR-5058 (December 9, 1974) (first degree murner);

State v. James Junior Biggs, Chowan County Super. Ct., 75-CR-1096 (January 25, 1975) (first degree murder):

State v. Allen Roberts, Durham County Super. Ct., 75-CR-12595 (February 12, 1975) (first degree rape)

State v. D.C. Cawthorne, Onslow County Super. Ct., 75-CR-22418 (February 24, 1975) (first degree murder);

State v. Willie F. McZorn, Moore Count, Super. Ct., 75-CR-0576 (March 5, 1975) (first degree marder):

State v. Larry A. Waddell, Mecklenburg Count, Super. Ct., 75-CR-703 (March 12, 1975) (first degree and letts

State v. Alfred J. Jones, Lenoir County Super. Ct., 75-CR-1032
(March 19, 1975)(first degree murder);

State v. Edward Davis, Buncombe County Super. Ct., 74-CR-21567
(March 20, 1975)(first degree murder);

State v. Robert Griffin, Jones County Super. Ct., 74-CR-1511
(March 27, 1975)(first degree murder);

State v. John T. Alford, Mecklenburg County Super. Ct., 74-CR-70358 (April 9, 1975) (first degree murder);

State v. Sherman Carter, Mecklenburg County Super. Ct., 74-CR-70366 (April 9, 1975) (first degree murder);

State v. Waymon Harris, Rockingham County Super. Ct., 75-CR-1577C (April 17, 1975) (first degree murder);

State v. James D. Harrill, Rutherford County Super. Ct., 75-CR-066D (May 16, 1975) (first degree murder);

State v. Coleman Covington, Robeson County Super. Ct., 74-CR-18381
(May 19, 1975)(first degree murder);

State v. James McEachin, Robeson County Super. Ct., 74-CR-18381
(May 19, 1975)(first degree murder);

State v. Leroy Richardson, Robeson County Super. Ct., 74-CR-18378
(May 19, 1975) (first degree murder);

State v. David Nicholson, Robeson County Super. Ct., 74-CR-18382
(May 19, 1975) (first degree murder);

State v. Michael Peplinski, Robeson County Super. Ct., 75-CR-1275
(June 8, 1975)(first degree murder);

State v. Willie McEachin, Robeson County Super. Ct., 75-CR-2366 (June 16, 1975) (first degree rape);

State v. Robert L. Thompson, Robeson County Super. Ct., 75-CR-2180
(June 16, 1975)(first degree rape);

State v. George Phifer, Beaufort County Super. Ct., 75-CR-434 (June 26, 1975) (first degree murder);

State v. Johnny Lawrence, Beaufort County Super. Ct., 75-CR-436
(June 26, 1975) (first degree murder);

- State v. Hillary Boyce, Beaufort County Super. Ct., 75-CR-435 (June 26, 1975) (first degree murder);
- State v. Dewie L. Gray, Mecklenburg County Super. Ct., 75-CR-2774 (June 26, 1975) (first degree rape);
- State v. Elzie Lee McCall, Transylvania County Super. Ct., 75-CR-204
 (July 11, 1975) (first degree murder);
- State v. Willard Warren, Haywood County Super. Ct., 75-CR-1286
 (July 12, 1975)(first degree murder);
- State v. Charles Alvin, Montgomery County Super. Ct., 75-CR-614 (July 25, 1975) (first degree murder);
- State v. James C. Johnson, Montgomery County Super. Ct., 75-CR-631
 (July 25, 1975) (first degree murder);
- State v. McKinley Williams, Halifax County Super. Ct., 75-CR-808
 (August 6, 1975) (first degree murder);
- State v. Tamarcus Swift, Wayne County Super. Ct., 75-CR-6754 (August 22, 1975) (first degree murder):
- State v. Victor Foust, Wilson County Super. Ct., 75-CR-2025
 (August 28, 1975)(first degree murder);
- State v. William Earl Matthews, Wilson County Super. Ct., 75-CR-2022
 (August 28, 1975)(first degree murder);
- State v. David Earl Locklear, Robeson County Super. Ct., 75-CR-1274
 (September 11, 1975)(first degree murder);
- State v. Gregory James Taylor, Mecklembers County Super. Ct., 75-CR-(September 11, 1975) (first degree marder);
- State v. Harry F. Hammonds, Anson County Super. Ct., 75-CR-2618 (September 11, 1975) (first degree murder).



